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**Professional Development of Nonteaching University Administrators:
A Kenyan Public University Experience**

by

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to describe the professional development (PD) activities accorded to non-teaching administrators of Moi University, a national university in Kenya. It also explored the perceptions of the administrators regarding various aspects of the PD initiatives. The study targeted all non-teaching administrative staff from the level of Administrative Assistant to the Registrar level. Forty-six of the 54 circulated questionnaires—representing an 85% return rate—seven interviews, and various university publications and documents provided data for the study.

The study results indicate that overall, despite the apparent high need for and interest in PD by the administrators, the university accorded limited opportunities. Administrator participation in PD activities was also limited and tended to favour those in the higher-level positions. Seminars and formal education were the most frequently used forms of PD, most of which were funded by external agencies. For most, self-development was perceived to be the motivating factor for PD even though the university official policy and objectives were largely geared towards institutional development. The PD skills perceived to be of high importance and in need of development were, computer skills, human resources management, time management, and decision-making. However, this study revealed that most initiatives undertaken by the administrators were unrelated to what they perceived as important or of high need.

The lack of established PD programs, clear objectives, guiding policy, financial and technical resources, needs analysis, supportive administrative structure, and little support from the senior management were identified as major barriers to PD.

From the study findings, it is recommended that the university should institute its own coordinated programs, budgeted through the new training office and backed by a clear policy. In addition, cost-effective and accessible in-house courses and programs having the support of university faculty staff should be encouraged. Likewise, a re-evaluation of the university's administrative structure and reward system should be undertaken, with a view to improving morale and fostering interest in PD. Overall, this study offers constructive insights for university administrators in similar environments and, as well, contributes to the understanding of issues in professional development within higher education institutions.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Higher education institutions in Africa, as in most parts of the world, have in the last two decades found themselves in the midst of unprecedented social, economic, and political changes. Given this scenario, it is imperative that as a matter of survival, relevance, and credibility, Kenyan as well as other African universities must consciously search for innovative initiatives, programs, and strategies for effective and efficient management for their institutions.

The management of universities in Africa has within the last few decades been in the forefront of educational policy reforms. This has been due to the status accorded to them and the roles that universities are deemed to play in the overall economic and social development of the country (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, 1996; Koech, 1999). However, most African governments, which shoulder the bulk of the funding to universities and education in general, have expressed concerns over what they see as gross mismanagement, inefficiency, and sheer lack of accountability by their universities (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, 1996; Sifuna, 1997; UNESCO, 1995). Similarly, recent reports and studies by African academics, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank (WB), the United Nations Development Programs (UNDP), and other major agencies involved in funding and revitalizing education in African universities have deplored the state of management of these institutions. Consequently, a number of these agencies have formulated policies aimed at correcting the situation. For instance, UNESCO has resolved to accord priority to the improvement of both the educational quality and professional efficiency of university

management and administrative personnel (UNESCO, 1992). The World Bank has also identified a number of key initiatives needed to revitalize the management of educational institutions in Sub-Sahara Africa (World Bank, 1988). Because of government concern and international involvement in university management, professional development is increasingly becoming an area of great interest in African university reform efforts and their strategic development planning (Cowan, 1997; Farrant & Afoso, 1997).

Professional development has been defined as planned activities, practiced both within and outside organizations, that are intended primarily to develop the professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, and performance of professional staff (Blandford, 2000). Practitioners have observed that as an organizational practice, professional development generally serves to enhance individual performance, rectify ineffective practice, establish groundwork for policy implementation, and facilitate organizational change and development (Barnes, 1984; Becher, 1999; Levin, 1998). Cowan (1997) also argued that professional development is more than just staff training or ad hoc approaches to management survival skills; rather, it must be an "integral part of policy making, goal setting and evaluation of all practice and output" (p. 124). He explained that a "long term approach to the development of staff encourages a systematic vision for the organization and sees change as a challenge through which greater success and opportunity can accrue" (p. 125).

The importance of professional development for managers notwithstanding, the literature indicates that most of the initiatives at universities globally have generally tended to concentrate on the development of academic staff. Research indicated that where administrator professional development has taken place, it has often concentrated

on academic administrators—such as the faculty deans, department chairs, or directors of academic institutes—rather than on the professional non-academic administrators. (Lewis, Cavalier, Hantman, Waechter, & Yamakawa, 1994; McDade, 1987; Nordvall, 1979; Shtogren, 1978; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). Despite the fact that professional development of higher education administrators is a long-recognized necessity and obligation, emphasis on the development of non-academic administrators has continually remained low. Brown and Atkins (1986) observed that “from 1929, a succession of reports, papers and conferences advanced the idea that the training of academic and administrative staff in universities was essential” (p. 119). However, unlike the development of faculty, it is only in the last three decades that professional development programs for administrators have evolved noticeably (Miklos & Nixon, 1979; Shtogren, 1978, p. 12; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). While this trend was largely true in the western world, a number of UNESCO reports (1995, 1997, 1998) show that the developing world, and in particular Africa has lagged behind in the efforts to institutionalize staff and professional development of both faculty and administrative staff.

Several factors have been credited with the increased interest in administrator development. The challenges posed by environmental changes and demands exerted by the society have been instrumental in the evolution of administrator professional development. Behn (1983) contended that the “crises in the social and political environment create both problems and opportunities for public organizations such as universities to rethink their organizational strategy in the strengthening of institutional management” (p. 117). Gray (1982) also noted that professional development is important in any institution at any time, and even more so in a period of contraction.

Contraction is a state that many African universities could be characterized as experiencing, due to reduced funding from central governments and high demand, among other factors. The implication of these challenges, as Johnsrud and Rosser (1999) argued is that administrative staff have had to be targeted for professional development to enhance their efficiency and morale.

This view is shared by Boyer and Grasha (1987), who, in recognition of the changing and unstable environments in which higher education institutions operate, argued that if administrators are to cope and influence the change processes, they need to enhance the skills and abilities they currently possess (p. 23). The literature indicated that a great number of institutions of higher learning have, as a result of this recognition, established programs in the belief that relevant learning experiences to enhance conceptual skills, decision-making techniques, and sound administrative principles, policies, and procedures could be imparted to accelerate job effectiveness (Brown, Boyle, & Boyle, 2000, pp. 31-32; Canon, 2001, p.109; McDade, 1987; Shtogren, 1978, p. 13; Van Roche, 2001, p. 121; UNESCO, 1997).

Warner and Crosthwaite (1995) also recognized the importance that specific environments, values, and cultures play in the whole realm of professional development. They observed that professional development in universities and colleges could not be discussed "without an understanding of values and cultures associated with higher education." (p. xii). They further argued, that "any attempt to transfer into universities new principles of personnel policy without considering the environment within which those principles are going to have to be brought into effect is likely to fail" (p. xii). It is in this regard and in light of the above overview that the African and in particular Kenyan

contexts need to be examined in order to put the professional development practices into proper perspective.

The African Context

Much of the research on professional development in universities for both faculty staff and administrators has been done in Western Europe, North America, and Australia, but little in Africa. A substantial amount of work, as reported by UNESCO, has been done in the Africa regions through the study program on higher education management in Africa. However, this also has focused mostly on academic staff development. Although professional development is increasingly being recognized in African universities, the state of management of higher education within the African region has within the last 10 years been of concern to the region's leaders as well as regional and international organizations. Notable in this regard are the Association of African Universities (AAU); the African Development Bank (ADB); African academics, foundations, lending bodies, and United Nation agencies such UNDP and UNESCO; the German Foundation for International Development (DSE); and German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD).

Under the auspices of UNESCO, ADB, AAU and OAU, a series of international conferences took place between 1990 and 1997 that explored the state of universities in Africa. These conferences brought together the vice-chancellors, presidents, and rectors of all African universities, education ministers, and members of international organizations. Arising from these initiatives, a policy document entitled *Priority: Africa—Development of Higher Education in Africa* (1993) was produced, which contains, among other things, priority programs for action. The document revealed that research done in universities across Africa highlighted problems in management. These

concerns were attributed to a number of problems with which the continent has had to grapple. The document recorded that specific studies and field activities conducted since 1983 have shown that the unsatisfactory situation of higher education in Africa was the result of (a) economic difficulties at the national level that have led to frequent and drastic financial constraints that seriously limit the allocation of resources to universities, in particular at a time when demand for higher education has been at a high level; (b) lack of professional development and training; (c) the absence of clear-cut higher education policy and clear definitions of the roles that higher education should take in development issues; (d) lack of motivation among staff; and (e) lack of efforts to harmonize, coordinate, and collaborate in framing higher education policies among the different African States (UNESCO /AAU, 1993). The importance of professional development was underscored when a proposal was put forward by UNESCO to establish an African Staff Development Network for Higher Education in Africa under the Association of African Universities (AAU). Since then, series of programs and initiatives aimed at revitalizing management and staff development have been instituted in many universities across Africa.

The Kenyan Context

Like most countries in Africa, Kenya is committed to the development of higher education on the premise that university education is perhaps the most crucial resource to the development of human resources (Abagi, 1997, Koech, 1999). This is evident in the fact that the government has undertaken a comprehensive review of education and training programs through a number of reports and commissions and has articulated long-term policies for development and management of the sector (Abagi, 1997; GOK, 1981,

1986, 1999). Because of the value the government has placed on university education, universities in Kenya have emphasized the need to develop skills that would enable administrative staff to handle the changing environment of higher education. Despite the recognition of this need, as Sifuna (1997) has noted, the state of Kenyan public universities in all areas—including administration—is in a crisis.

Bukhala (1985) observed that perhaps the first and last effort in administrative staff and professional development in Kenyan public universities occurred with the splitting of the University of East Africa in 1970. This was when there was a deliberate attempt to plan a relevant program for training registrars and their staff in the respective universities of Makerere, Nairobi, and Dar-Es-Salaam. Bukhala noted that "as soon as the initial participants went through the program, their successors were, (and even now are) often left on their own devices to float and find their own level to the detriment of their universities and staff vitality" (p. 29). This trend has also been evident in the newly established universities. Bukhala (1985) added that, coupled with the discontinuation of the training program, subsequent vice-chancellors and registrars have had no prior training on aspects of their jobs, which has led to a reduction in institutionalization of the culture of professional development in universities (p. 29). An attempt to correct this anomaly and to streamline staff development was put in place with the creation of the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) under the Universities Act, 1985 with the responsibility of coordinating the training in both universities and middle level colleges. Koech (1999) reports an observation made by the Commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya, which identified various legal instruments, that have

hampered the meaningful participation of CHE, as an advisory body to the Government, in the academic and professional development programs of the university sector (p.142).

However, in recognition of the need for professional development, individual universities in Kenya have pursued professional development initiatives and activities both at planned and at ad hoc levels. The kinds of activities found in each university could largely be related to the fact that many of the public universities in Kenya are fairly young: Four out of five public universities in Kenya are less than 14 years old. This supports the notion explored by Lore (1985) that in Africa (and in particular Kenya), universities can be divided into two main groups — those in a formative phase of development and those that are in a steady-state phase of consolidation, maintenance, and reorganization (p. 47). Moi University could be classified as being in a formative stage, having been established in 1984.

Following the harmonization of terms for the university sector in the late 1980s, and with influence from the World Bank, the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) was mandated to solicit funding and take over the policy issues and planning regarding staff development for all public university staff. Although CHE still performs this task on a minimal scale, the bulk of the decisions and fund solicitation is still done by individual universities.

Efforts on the ground, however, indicate that as a result of the need and demand for accountability and good governance in Kenyan universities, there has been a growing interest in professional development for the attainment of university efficiency and effectiveness. There have, for instance, been external agencies that demand that university management be enhanced through training before any form of assistance will

be extended. Notable in this regard are the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which have spelt out conditions for financial assistance to the Kenyan university system within the wider framework of the structural adjustment programs for Sub-Sahara Africa. Other agencies have in the past been similarly instrumental in providing training support. They include UNESCO, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), and the British Council (BC), German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD). Consequently, a number of administrative staff from these universities have undertaken varied training and professional development programs both within the country and overseas. The universities have also been receiving annual grants from the central government for purposes of professional development for administrative staff.

A Brief Overview of the Target University

Establishment and Growth

Moi University, a rural university in Western Kenya, was established in 1984 through an act of parliament as the second public university in Kenya. The establishment of the university was enacted following the recommendation of a Presidential Working Party popularly known as the "MacKay Report," which found overwhelming support after collecting views from across the country.

Since its establishment in 1984, the university has grown from a student population of 83 to over 8,000. It has a teaching population of over 500 and administrative and support staff of over 1,200. It has also grown from one Department of Forestry in 1984 to 10 faculties, schools, and institutes; a teaching and referral hospital; and a number of centers and a constituent college.

The university currently has three campuses. The main campus is set on a 3,000-acre spread of land 35 kilometers southwest of Eldoret town; the second largest is on 1,200 acres about 10 kilometers east of Eldoret town; and the third campus, where the teaching and referral hospital is located, is in the heart of Eldoret town. Its largely rural setting provides a unique environment in terms of both administration and outlook.

Governance and Administration of the University

As a public university in Kenya, Moi University's ceremonial head was the chancellor, who was also the country's president and head of state. (This was the case at the time of the research. The new government has appointed a chancellor for each university.) The chancellor appointed all the chief officers of the university, as well as key members of the university council. The two major policy and administrative organs of the university are the Council and Senate.

The Council

The council is the overall executive body of the university. Its membership is drawn from the university and from the private and public sectors and includes key heads of government ministries. The chancellor appointed all council members with the exception of those from the university. In terms of jurisdiction, the council is responsible for major policy decisions, receiving and ratifying recommendations from its standing committees, as well as from the senate. It is responsible for finance, acts as custodian of the property of the institution, and is responsible for proper administration and the work of staff and students.

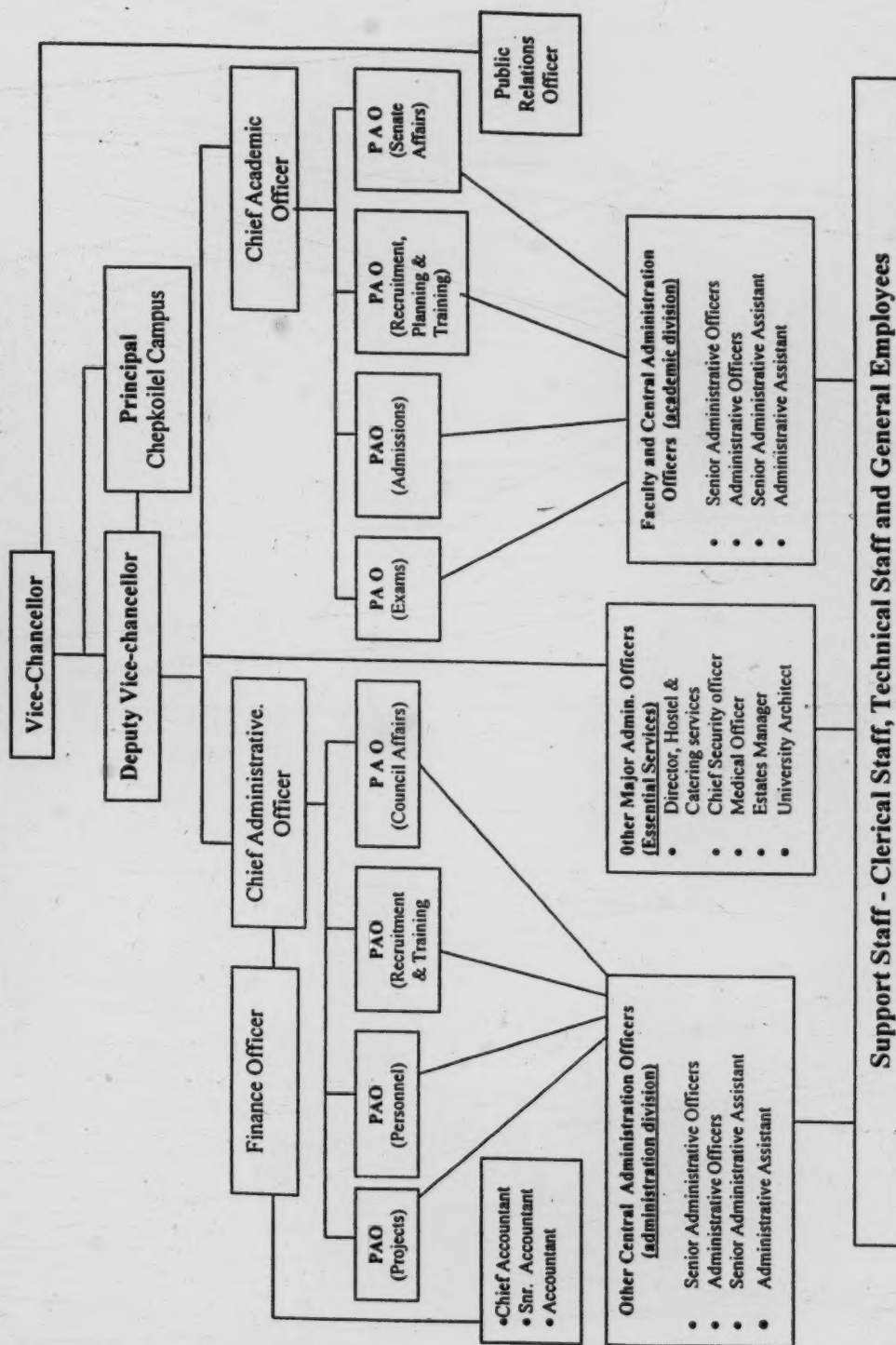
The Senate

As an administrative organ, the Senate is in charge of the academic wing of the university. Ideally, the Senate is charged with awarding degrees and diplomas, assessing the quality of students and staff, and determining the suitability and content of programs. In terms of composition, the vice-chancellor chairs the senate with membership comprising the deputy vice-chancellor, principals of colleges, deans of faculties, heads of departments, full professors, and elected student representatives. The two chief administrative officers (administrative and academic registrars) attend senate but with no voting powers. As a body, the senate acts a collective academic and administrative advisor to council. Most of the background work is done through committees and subcommittees, that then report to senate for onward transmission to council.

Administrative Structure

As reflected in Figure 1, the vice-chancellor, who is both the administrative and academic head of the institution, heads the university. Currently, the university provides for one deputy vice-chancellor, whose major focus is academic matters through the Deans' Committee, and research and external relations administration. Below the deputy vice-chancellor are the two chief officers (registrars). The chief administrative officer is the overall administrator of the university and also is secretary to council. Directly responsible to the chief administrative officer are all administrative officers at the university. These include offices such as personnel administration, finance, estates, staff welfare, transport, recruitment and training, central services, and staff development in general. The chief academic officer is in charge of all academic-related matters, such as admissions, examinations, academic planning and staff development, department and

Figure 1
Moi University Administrative Structure (Non-Academic)



faculty administration, and senate matters. All of the offices under the two chief administrative officers provided respondents for this study. They ranged from the Principal Administrative Officers to Administrative Assistants.

Staff Development at the University

From the onset, the focus of staff and professional development at Moi University, as recommended by the MacKay report (1981), was geared towards the development of academic staff. The goal was to identify and develop a pool of local academics who would gradually replace the expatriate staff and who would form a nucleus for developing other staff. Following its establishment and acting upon its mandate, the university embarked on establishing links with foreign universities and international development agencies for purposes of funding for staff development. Local public institutions as well as the private sector were also included as targets in the quest for training university staff.

With the above mandate, the development of administrative staff was not immediately evident judging from the fact that the initial budgets drawn for staff development did not include administrative staff (MacKay, 1981, pp. 79-80). However, over the years the administrators have been involved with professional training programs.

The *Report of the Presidential Working Party* of 1981 (McKay report), which paved the way for the establishment of Moi University as the second university in Kenya, emphasized the importance of staff development. One recommendation read in part:

The university will be expected to establish clear staff development programs as a matter of top priority. The program should include provisions for increasing efficiency of those already serving as members of staff, and also create a team of local staff who would take over from expatriate staff members. . . . It will be necessary to plan to establish a comprehensive staff development program at an early stage. Such scheme should include identifying Kenyans and offering them

scholarships and fellowships for further relevant training both locally and abroad. (p. 58)

The report also recommended the solicitation of funding from various donor agencies for purposes of staff development. Most professional development programs envisaged initially targeted academic staff, but emphasis was also given to administrative staff development. Successive budget allocations did support this endeavor judging from information in Table 1.

Table 1

Moi University Budget Allocation for Staff Development: 1996 to 2001

Section	1996/97 K£	1997/98 K£	1998/99 K£	1999/2000 K£	2000/01 K£	Total K£
Academic	106,000	121,100	121,100	121,100	139,265	608,565
Non-academic	44,100	40,367	40,367	40,367	46,422	211,623
Total	150,100	161,467	161,467	161,467	185,687	820,188

(Source: Printed recurrent estimates, Moi University, 2001)

K£= 20 shillings

In acknowledging the need for immediate implementation of staff development programs, a workshop was organized in Mombasa in 1989 to map out the way forward for Moi University staff development. Nkonoki (1989) reported that the workshop acknowledged that the broad goals at Moi University should focus on enhancing academic and professional excellence for all staff. He observed that a comprehensive university staff development scheme ought to enhance training programs for academic,

management, and administrative and technical staff (p. 96). Matiru (1989) also indicated the importance of staff development at the university not to be construed to mean young academics and administrators being sent to other universities to obtain higher qualifications. Rather, it should involve training and development of both administrative/academic university staff, as organized by the university itself. Bukhala (1989) also observed that the future strategies for Moi University should include staff development programs that would enhance efficiency, effectiveness, and excellence by means of HRD in the form of well-planned and -executed programs for academic, managerial, technical, and administrative staff (see proposed framework for the university by the workshop—Figure 2). Since then, the Kenya government and funding agencies have provided funds for staff development purposes for both administration and the academic staff. However, there is every indication that outcomes of these programs have left a great deal to be desired. This study has therefore provided an overview of what is on the ground and assesses the administrator perceptions towards the initiatives.

The Staff Development Committee

The Staff Development Committee (SDC) reports to the Senate and is chaired by the deputy vice-chancellor. Its membership is largely drawn from among the deans of faculty and principals of institutes and colleges. The administrators are in attendance and serve as the secretariat to the committee.

In terms of functions, the SDC is charged with the responsibility of approving educational leave for staff development, as well as funding. Upon approval, the SDC forwards the recommendations to Council for ratification.

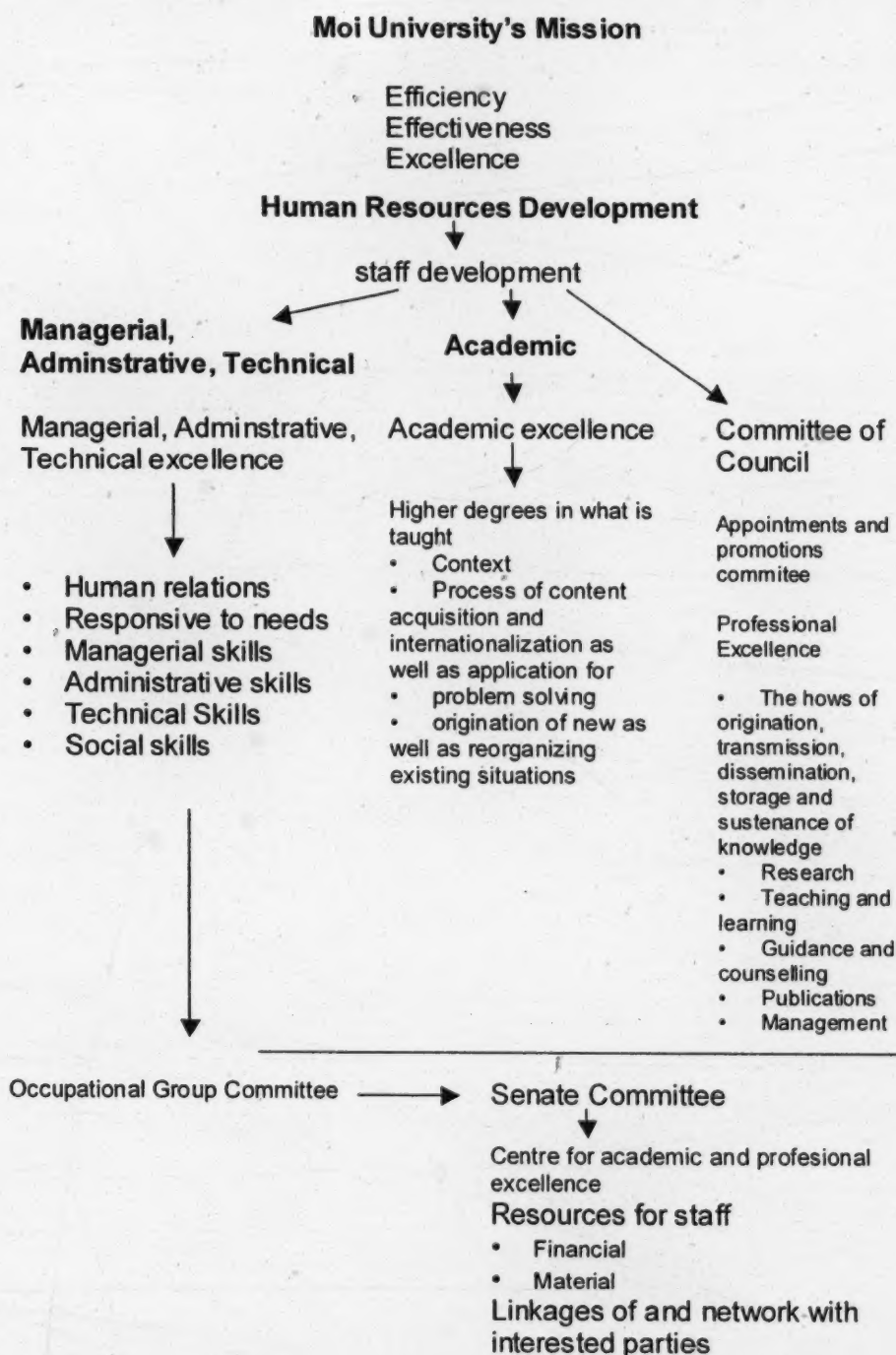


Figure 2. Proposed framework for Moi University staff development strategy (Bukhala, 1989; Mombasa workshop for Moi University staff development strategies).

Statement of the Problem

Moi University has responded to the need for staff and professional development by attempting to offer opportunities to its administrative staff. However, the extent of the PD outcomes or whether the initiatives are adapted to the changing environment and emerging needs of the society is unclear. What is also unclear is the administrators' perceptions regarding the staff development initiatives. Currently, there are various pressures to undertake professional development for university administrators, but there is little or no information to guide or harmonize the development of programs. The aim of this study is to seek answers to specific questions, which together would provide answers to the above concerns for which information seems to be lacking.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to explore the professional development programs undertaken for Moi University professional administrators, and the administrators' perceptions of these programs as well as their outcomes. More specifically, I sought to (a) describe the demographics of the non-teaching administrators of the university, (b) describe the professional development programs for administrators at Moi University, (c) explore the nature of staff development participation in PD activities, (d) explore the rationales for professional development at the university, (e) explore administrators' perceptions concerning professional development needs and preferred methods of PD, (f) explore administrators' perceptions concerning the outcomes of the professional development programs undertaken, and (g) compare the responses to the questionnaire items based on a variety of demographic variables.

These objectives were pursued through analyses of questionnaires, documents, and interviews with professional administrators.

Research Questions

The specific questions addressed were as follows:

Purpose 1. Describe the demographics of the nonteaching administrators of the university.

1. What are the demographic characteristics of non-teaching administrators at Moi University?

Purpose 2: Explore and describe the forms and characteristics of staff development/professional development activities at the university.

1. What forms of professional development has the university employed?
2. What is the nature of staff participation in professional development initiatives?
3. What are administrators' understandings and perceptions of the objectives, policies and procedures, and strategies for implementation of the initiatives?

Purpose 3. Explore the rationales for staff development/professional development practices at the university.

1. What are the rationales for staff/professional development practices?
2. What rationales do the senior management have for staff development?
3. To what extent do organizational inputs contribute towards staff development initiatives?

Purpose 4. Explore the perceptions of administrators concerning professional development needs and the preferred methods of professional development.

1. What skills do administrators perceive to be crucial to their current roles?
2. What skills do administrators perceive as being in high need of development?
3. What methods of professional development do administrators prefer?

Purpose 5. Explore the perceptions of administrators concerning outcomes and barriers towards staff/professional initiatives.

1. To what extent do administrators perceive the PD initiatives to have been successful?
2. What factors do administrators perceive to impede staff development at the university?
3. What factors do administrators perceive as encouraging staff development at the university?

Definitions of Terms

In order to provide a common basis for understanding issues discussed in the study, a number of terms that are used throughout it are defined below.

Non-academic administrators: Those staff in central administration — including the registrar/chief administrator's office, finance division, planning and maintenance division, central services, and so on — who come within certain senior professional classification and grading. For purposes of this study, does not include the technical, clerical, or maintenance staff.

PD activities: For purposes of this study, PD denotes any activities, formal, informal, planned or unplanned, undertaken by the university or individual staff members, within the university towards their professional development.

Perspective: For this study, views held by individual staff members with regard to issues associated with professional development at the university.

Need: An objectively demonstrable deficiency in relation to one's work environment.

Needs assessment: A systematic set of procedures undertaken for the purpose of identifying needs, setting priorities, and making decisions about program or organizational improvement and allocation of resources. The set priorities are based on identified needs.

Organizational development: An organizational intervention strategy that uses group processes to focus on the whole organization or a part of the organization in order to bring about planned change. In this definition, organizational development seeks to change values, beliefs, attitudes, structures, and practices so that an organization or some part of it can better adapt to change.

Career path: A sequent pattern of jobs that form one's career.

Strategic planning: The process of developing and maintaining a strategic fit between the organization and its changing environments.

Significance of the Study

The study is meaningful to four broad groups: the profession of university administration, administrative staff as practitioners, the managers and policy makers, and researchers.

Significance to the Profession

According to Nichols (2001), the provision of professional development in higher education is highly complex and multifaceted. A study that would contribute a piece to understanding that multifaceted task is therefore significant. Specifically, this study increases the body of knowledge in the area of professional development from the African perspective. A survey of the literature revealed that very little study has been done from the African perspective. Most of the work on professional development in higher education comes from the United States, Canada, Britain, and Australia. A gap seems to exist in terms of professional development data from the African region. It is hoped that this study will inform the profession in that respect.

Although professional and staff development has been instituted in Kenyan as well as other African universities, there is little or no information to guide or harmonize the development of professional development programs. The findings from this study should help inform initiatives in this sphere, especially insofar as the study explores and examines the nature and essential features of professional development in higher education in its present form, with the hope of mapping a better future. In sum, it is hoped that the findings will influence programming, policies, strategies, and foci for professional development initiatives in the university.

Significance to Administrative Staff and Practitioners

Moore and Twombly (1990) suggested that "administrative functions in colleges and universities are larger and more complex than before" (p. 109). This complexity, they argued, demands deeper understanding of the personal and situational variables that are associated with effective professional development initiatives. But a review of the

literature has indicated that not much attention has been given to how administrators perceive programs that affect them, yet so much is expected from them in terms of performance. Even with this gap in terms of demands and expectation Moore (1984) suggested that the demands placed on administrators to perform new and more intricate tasks will increase steadily and the need for competent, committed individuals to perform these tasks will not diminish.

The current research accorded administrators the opportunity to add their voices, experiences, and perspectives to the profession in which they were involved; yet, in many respects, they have little input into decision-making that affects them with respect to staff development. As input from the administrative community, this work may help practitioners find collaborative ways for dealing with existing barriers to more relevant PD and sensitize senior management to strategies for developing institutional vitality.

Significance to Management and Policy Makers

The study is also significant in that, at a practical level, it may help institutions identify the PD needs of administrators and harmonize them with the needs and strategic plans of the institutions. There is a growing and real possibility that a gap exists between the preparation provided in PD programs in Kenyan universities and the practical problems of the administration profession. This study throws light on possible discrepancies between the two and offers suggestions for narrowing them. Also, it may benefit management to have descriptions of the intangible feelings of the staff who work below them. They can therefore use the information to justify a shift in the ways that they organize and implement development initiatives for staff.

Significance to Theory and Research

From the review of the literature it is apparent that there is a lack of theoretical or conceptual frameworks for understanding professional development in universities. This study adds to the body of literature and contributes to better conceptualizations and theory.

The data generated from this study also form a baseline for further studies of administrator development in other universities in Kenya and Africa generally.

Overall, considering the setting and circumstances within which Moi University operates, I am hopeful that this study will be used as another lens through which to peer at and probe the multifaceted complexity of professional development. I am also hopeful that future researchers will build on this study to work toward a highly effective framework for professional development in the universities of Kenya

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into five further chapters, as follows:

Chapter 2: I examine the related literature in three areas: (a) I examine some of the major issues that affect university management in Africa and how these issues relate to professional initiatives in specific contexts; (b) I examine the literature related to selected aspects of professional development for administrators at university; and (c) I provide an overview of theories that have influenced PD in general and in Africa specifically. In addition, I suggest a conceptual framework.

Chapter 3: I present the research methodology and study method. Thus I outline the research design, development and administration of research instruments, population

target and sampling procedures, data analysis, trustworthiness, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations.

Chapter 4: I present the findings concerning demographic characteristics of the respondents. The response rates and implications for overall trustworthiness of the study are also presented.

Chapter 5: I present the major findings of the study from the questionnaire, interviews and documentary sources. I also present the association between personal/demographic variables and perceptions concerning professional development initiatives.

Chapter 6: I summarize the major findings of the study and discuss them in relation to the literature. I also present the implications for research and practice, some personal reflections, and study conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section provides an understanding of the environment in which the study took place and the implications for administrators' professional development. The second section provides an overview of issues and perspectives in professional development for non-teaching administrators in universities. It examines some of the definitions, the place of professional development in administrative theory, the rationale, aims and purposes, levels and forms of professional development; and challenges facing universities. The third section proposes a conceptual framework for the study and implementation and assessment for effective professional development in higher education.

The Context of Professional Development in African Universities

It is my contention that it is necessary to situate the study and to argue that, unlike many universities in the Western world, Kenyan and certainly many African universities are faced with unique situations and challenges. Early and recent studies on staff development and professional development in higher education indicate that both the practice and the process are shaped and influenced by the setting in which they are placed even as they shape the setting (Cannon, 1983; Case, 1976; Croswaithe, 1995). Case argued that

Inherent in staff development are a dynamic and a momentum. Installed and viable, it becomes involved in governance, institutional organization and structures, policies and procedures . . . The direction it takes, its scope and intensity is strongly influenced by the setting. (p. 1)

Also, Girdwood (1997) argued that university management practices (such as staff development) are a multifaceted tapestry of woven threads reflecting the great variety of history, culture, size, age, and geographic location of the university. Numerous researchers agree that many universities in the developing world are faced with unique issues, situations, and challenges; and even on issues of a global nature, such as fiscal constraints, the literature has shown that the effects upon these environments and their institutions provide major departures. Viewing African institutions therefore calls for a different set of frames. The results reported in this study are assessed on the basis of the environments within which they operate rather than generalized across other universities worldwide or even within the African region.

Resources

The literature on the state of higher education in Africa is replete with the notion that most public universities currently face a host of complex and adverse situations as well as resource shortages, and, as a result, it is widely acknowledged that they are in a state of crisis (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, et al 1996; Girdwood, 1997; Sifuna, 1997; UNESCO 1995). Many African scholars agreed that the critical problem confronted by African universities is their dwindling resources (financial, physical, and human). This, according to Ajayi et al (1996), is happening ironically during a period of growing student enrolment. Consequently, universities have found themselves in a position in which they cannot respond decisively to the challenges that confront them, such as strengthening human resource capacity (ADEA Newsletter, 1999; UNESCO, 1998).

Girdwood (1997) underscored the fact that public universities in Africa are funded almost entirely by government (p. 250). Negrao (as cited in Cowan, 1997, p. 253)

reported that, with only a few exceptions, public universities in Africa are dependent on governments for approximately 90% of their funding. Recent trends indicate that over the last 10 years government funding has declined drastically (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, et al 1996; Mwiria, 1992; Sifuna, 1997).

Ajayi et al (1996) noted that the woeful economic situation of most African countries since the 1980s has meant steady dwindling of both externally and internally sourced resources. The funding levels therefore have failed consistently to match, in real terms, the requirements of critical inputs — training and development, equipment, books, journals — to sustain acceptable standards of institutional research and service (Ajayi, et al 1996; Neave & Van Vaught, 1994; UNESCO, 1998).

UNESCO (1998) reported that an outstanding consequence common in higher education institutions across the continent is that institutional budgets for human resource development have been cut. Staff development agendas have been adversely affected at a time when they are needed most to enable institutions meet the challenges posed by the environment (UNESCO, 1998). A commission of inquiry by the government of Kenya in 1999 (otherwise known as the Koech report) reported that the government resources have consistently failed to match the needs of the university sector due to student enrolments and physical expansion. It continued to state that government past programs initiated to alleviate this concerns have not worked well. It sates in part

The Commission notes that, although both the cost sharing and the loan systems were initiated in order to guarantee availability of funds to the universities, besides alleviating financial difficulties for the students, these goals have not been achieved (p 175).

Institutional Strategic Planning

One characteristic of most African universities is the lack of institutional strategic planning (Farant & Afonso, 1997). Castetter & Young (2004) define planning as a methodological mechanism for projecting intentions and actions rather than reacting to causes and events. They further observed that strategic planning is more necessary now in times of budget limitations than ever before. However, Owako (1999) lamented the lack of institutional strategic planning in Kenyan higher education and suggested that it is probably the most important tool for institution building in that it enables the institution not only to chart the path for its future development within a given time frame, but also to relate such developments to the mission for which the institution was established. The same is true for many countries of the OECD (OECD, 1998).

In commenting on the crisis in African universities, the Development of Education in Africa (DEA) newsletter pointed out that with numerous studies now available for guidance in management of educational institutions, it is believed that the main constraint to the revival of the African university is not lack of, or a sense of, what is required, but an inability to take action (DEA, 1999). It further revealed that the African ministers of finance and education, who met in Arusha, Tanzania, in 1996, identified strategic planning as the key process that needs to be adapted for African university renewal. They determined that;

strategic planning provides university leaders and all other stakeholders with structures and practices that enhance their ability to analyze conditions, to express a vision, to formulate goals; and to persuade a campus community to promote the advancement of its institution in a clearly enunciated and programmed manner.
(p. 3)

There are varied reasons provided for the lack of strategic planning. Mwiria (1992) stated, "Long-term strategic planning has proved virtually impossible in Kenya as government funding fluctuates on a monthly basis" (p. 14). Eisemon & Salmi (1993) added that mechanisms for determining the allocation of funding from the African governments have simply failed to operate for extended periods and that most institutions have received funding on, at best, an annual basis, making long-term planning difficult.

Although it is an accepted fact that strategic planning is essential to organizational growth and development, the degree to which higher education institutions in Africa can plan and implement depends to a large extent on other external forces. In this respect university-state relations play a key role. According to Farrant & Afonso (1997), "The standard text of strategic planning assumes that the organization already has a considerable measure of autonomy to manage its own affairs, to determine both the ends and the means" (p. 27). However, most African universities do not. Mwiria (1992) noted that in the 1990-1991 academic sessions, the universities of Zambia, Ghana, and Makerere received 79%, 53%, and 34%, respectively, of their requested budgets. With budgets approved outside the system, a great degree of autonomy is lost.

Between 1991 and 1995 UNESCO commissioned the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service (CHEMS) and the Association of African Universities (AAU) to undertake a study on strategic planning in African universities. The study reported that out of the 59 members of the Association of Commonwealth Universities in Sub-Saharan Africa, excluding South Africa, no more than 10 universities had, as of mid-1995, made substantial advances in strategic planning (p. 25). The implication is that with

lack of strategic planning, staff development initiatives in African universities are in most cases unplanned or ad hoc.

University/State Relations

Due to funding trends and the university governance structure, African scholars in higher education suggested that university-state relations is arguably one of the most contentious points in African higher education. Abagi (1997), in examining this issue as it relates to Kenya, asserted that currently the relationship between the government and universities is generally one of conflict. The bone of contention lies in the fact that the structures of internal governance, as well as funding arrangements, are obstacles to academic freedom, university autonomy, and institutional planning. Levin (1998) pointed out that government interventions, government funding behaviours, and government policies, particularly social policies and other government agency actions, have been viewed as the precipitators of institutional change. He further posited that most governments have been accused of "micromanaging" institutions, or "buffering" the institution from the marketplace and of "affecting the institution with its practices of social equality.

Using Burton Clark's "triangle of coordination," Farrant and Afonso (1997) and Neave and Van Vaught (1994) linked the present state of affairs to Britain's exportation of a "state supervising model" to its colonies and discussed how that model has degenerated over time to a "state control model." This is epitomized in Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana, and Uganda by their countries' presidents' being ex-officio chancellors of all of the public universities (Abagi, 1997; Farrant & Afonso, 1997; Mwiria, 1992; Wandiga, 1997).

In examining the Kenyan context, Mwira (1992) noted that the Kenyan government nominates most members of the University Council. He added that in all the public universities, more than 60% of all council members are nominees of the chancellor. The implication is that the government's views become dominant in council deliberations and that it easily steers university affairs in the government's favor with full protection from the law (Farrant & Afonso, 1997; Mwira, 1992). Neave and Van Vaught (1994) argued that the Ministry of Education is capable of administering sanctions against institutions that do not comply with national plans through quarterly budgetary allocation or release of funds, and appointments of key university administrators where its support or approval is needed. It follows, therefore, that those who represent the government in the council do not necessarily share issues that would be of paramount importance to university staff, such as staff development. The government thus becomes intervener with regard to its relations with universities.

In their study that provided an international perspective on university-state relations, Goedegebuure et al. (1997) noted that in "every higher education system, governments play a certain role in shaping or coordinating the system" (p. 5). However, Albach (1998) was quick to point out that, at present, no general agreement exists concerning the appropriate level of government involvement in higher education. Neave and Van Vaught (1994) differentiated what has been termed the *facilitating state* and the *interventionary state*. According to them, facilitating state refers to a "government underwriting higher education as an opportunity for those duly qualified to have access . . . without actually directing policies at the heart of academia, governance, program development, and authority" (p. 5). Neave and Van Vaught went on to say that

“interventionary state refers to a government actively involved in attempts to influence such dimensions as the nature of student output and the nature of relationship between an institution and its environment” (p. 5).

Neave and Van Vaught (1994) also argued that in trying to link higher education with national development, many African countries have tried to force higher education to adapt to local conditions as a way of formulating solutions to local problems. In the process they have tended to further increase the power of government with respect to higher education, which often has led to a rather authoritarian governmental attitude towards higher education. They further stated that in several African countries, where initially the British model was introduced, the “state control” model has superseded the “state-supervising model” (p. 13). Commenting on the Kenyan model, Neave and Van Vaught termed it “a state control model par excellence” (p. 72). Figure 3 below shows what research has revealed about the university-state relations in selected countries.

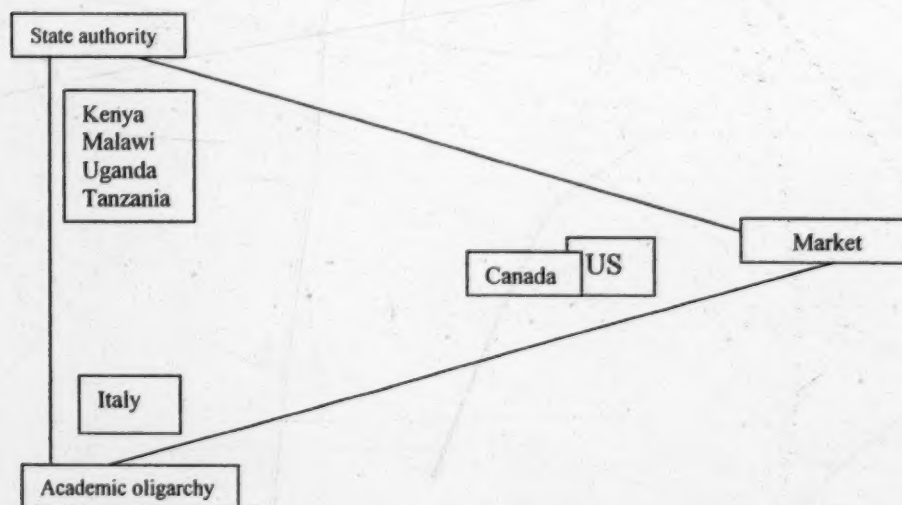


Figure 3. Selected countries in the triangle of coordination in the university system (Neave & Van Vaught, 1994, p. 55).

Expansion

Over the last two decades the demand for university education in Kenya has increased, and the government has been forced to provide for alternative expansion in terms of physical location. Neave and Van Vaught (1994) stated that in the 1980s Kenya went through the most rapid expansion of higher education in the region (p. 72). Student numbers increased drastically in some institutions. In Kenya, for instance, student numbers increased from 8,000 in 1984 to 40,000 in 1990 (Koech, 1999; Woodhall, 1992). Mwiria (1992) argued that this rapid increase has placed a great deal of strain on facilities, the quality of education, and administration/governance.

Sifuna (1997) reported that in the last two decades also, Kenya experienced unprecedented expansion in university education. The university system has grown within the last two decades from one university to six full-fledged universities with a total student enrolment of over 40,000. He noted that this expansion has precipitated a major crisis in the area of autonomy and academic freedom, as well as budgetary issues that have resulted in a serious decline in the quality of education management and increased state control (Watson, 1987). This was supported by Scott (1994), who provided a comparative view of the massification of higher education and stated that the expansion of higher education in Kenya has been linked with explosive expansion in the power and influence of the state. A recent report of the commission of inquiry into the education system of Kenya—the Koech Report (1999), underscored the impact of the rapid expansion of the university system has had with regard to straining resources. The commission reported that the issue had been addressed by previous reports but little had been done to address the gap between provision of resources and the expansion needs. As

such there are numerous stalled projects, reduced student services, and academic resources. The report largely attributes the crisis in the universities to expansion. It records,

In considering the challenges currently facing university education, the Commission observed that most of these are related to the country's inability to match the growth in university student numbers, with the provision of appropriate resources to cater for the increased population (p. 175).

Technological Change

Perhaps the single most visible change in educational institutions is the rate at which technology is changing and impacting on levels of work efficiency across the world. Castetter and Young (2004) writing from the perspective of schools systems stated that the technological advancement has changed the educational landscape in terms of their operations. Unfortunately, several studies have indicated that in contrast, African universities have lagged behind all countries of the world in terms of the speed at which they have been able to change, adopt, modernize, or utilize technology for research, instruction, and management (Ajayi, et al, 1996). Koech (1999) reports that a number of Kenyan universities were still using manual means to manage students' records and other managerial practices. This underscores the lack of progress in keeping up with technological changes in the educational field and the rest of the world.

Model Challenge

Girdwood (1997) pointed out that although the universities were established at different times/phases, many were built on models selected in the 1940s. They characterized them as basically high-cost, elitist, residential institutions, in many instances established out of town and thus having a separate infrastructure of roads,

housing, and so on, and a large number of staff employed in service roles (p. 250). Apparently, all of these institutions that were originally established to cater to a small elite group now cater to a mass education system, with budgets that have declined in real terms.

Governance and Management

Albatch (1998), in looking at the expansion of universities in the developing world, noted that they have become larger and more complex and that this has necessitated a greater degree of professional administration. At the same time, he noted that the "traditional forms of governance and administration are increasingly criticized not only because they are unwieldy but also because in large and bureaucratic institutions they are inefficient" (p. 15). Critics currently use the term *inefficient* to refer to the administrative structures and decision-making processes in African universities (Abagi, 1997; UNESCO, 1998; World Bank, 1987). This view is currently seen in the demands from governments for greater efficiency and from students for value for money, as well as in the stringent accountability measures put forward by the government. In other words, there is a general call from all quarters for greater effectiveness in the quality of individual and institutional performance.

UNESCO (1998), a proponent of effective institutional management in Africa, underscored the need for universities to keep up with the times. It noted, "The technical skills needed by today's institutional managers call into question some of the traditional management structures and job specifications" (p. 6) and "If it is thought that the answer rests in greater devolution to deans and other middle level managers, then a large number of people in each institution will require management development support" (p. 6).

Currently, most African governance structures still mirror the structures established by the former colonial powers (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, et al, 1996; Girdwood, 1997), with highly centralized bureaucracies that have major decision-making power concentrated at the top. Colonial models cannot accommodate the changes necessitated by the new realities. According to Levin (1998), administrative models, individuals, and groups are seen as preserves of traditions and practices. In other cases they are viewed as resisters to change. According to him, both faculty and administrators view faculty-dominated bodies, such as the senate or academic councils, as preserves of institutional traditions and values.

Other Issues

Other factors pertinent to universities in Africa include the implementation of the Structural Adjustment programs required by international financial agencies such as the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Recent studies indicated that African universities are now grappling with conditions that run counter to the wishes of those institutions, such as staff retrenchment, funding formulas, and program cuts. At the time of this study Moi University was working out how to retrench a number of administrative as well as support staff.

Chapman (2001) explained that the donors are currently changing perspectives and focus in the support for educational development. He noted that, currently, virtually all international assistance organizations, (UNICEF, UNESCO, USAID, CIDA, WB) were evaluating their overall effectiveness in their involvement in higher education in developing countries (p. 460). The result has been a significant shift in focus away from higher education to basic education. As a consequence, universities have seen many of

their previous sources of funding diverted to basic education. Priorities at the universities have then had to be reorganized, and staff development has in turn been affected.

Issues and Perspectives in Professional Development of Non-Teaching University Administrators

This section provides a general review of the concept of professional development as it relates to university non-teaching administrators, as well as its place in organizational theory. The review examines the rationale, aims/purposes, levels and forms of development programs, and the challenges and impediments to effective professional development programs in universities.

Administrator Professional Development Defined

Professional development of administrators in higher education is a fairly recent area of study. As such, different writers have defined it in many different ways basically because a unified conceptualization has not emerged. Zuber-Skerritt (1992) stated that "professional development in higher education lacks a sound theoretical framework" (p. 1). In support of this assertion, he quoted Elton on professional development in higher education: "One is left with the impression that staff development in higher education is many faceted and that it is still looking for a sense of direction" (p. 146). This is reflected in the fact that different institutions use various terms such as *staff development*, *professional development*, *in-service education*, *training*, *continuing education*, *human resource development*, *administrative development*, *educational development*, or (when it involves faculty) *academic* or *faculty staff development* (Castetter, 1996; Shtogren, 1978; Webb & Norton, 1999; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992).

The literature suggested various reasons for the lack of a unified conceptualization. One of the perspectives relates to the historical shifts in emphasis. Webb and Norton (1999) noted that, initially, professional development involved reactive programs (p. 358): What were perceived as inadequacies in the preparation of teachers, faculty, and administrators brought into play remedial programs — to provide “missing education for ill prepared staff” (p. 358). Professional development or staff development was, as Orlich (1983) explained it, understood to mean something that some people (developers) do to others (employees). Such notions, according to Webb and Norton, dominated in-service programs in the 1960s and 1970s, and traces of this view still exist today. The focus of this perspective is on the individual and the perceived deficiency; thus staff development was seen predominantly as a remediation process. The downside of this perspective, as explained by Bailey (1991), is that it is not directed at promoting long-term professional growth in individuals, but rather a “series of single and unconnected training events” (p. 47).

Related to the above perception is the notion of the “approach to PD”. Greenaway and Harding (1978) argued that the basic concept of staff development for administrative staff while not different from that of faculty is, however different in approach. He states;

The greatest difference between non-teaching and their academic colleague's PD needs is not in identifying objectives, but in providing the means for fulfilling them. For instance, it takes longer to perfect many teaching and administrative skills than it take to learn many manual and clerical tasks. Each skill is as important to the role of the member of staff but the time-scale to achieve differs. As the time-scale varies so does the nature of the training program (p. 73)

They further justify the difference in approach by indicating that unlike the faculty, much of the development for administrative staff takes place on the job and in a team

environment. This approach brings to the fore the concept of teamwork, which according to them is central to their learning and development process.

Another perspective sees professional development in terms of programs' foci. For instance, there are those who focus on the nature of professional development programs and what constitutes an effective program (e.g., Aidoo-Taylor, 1986; Pansegrau, 1983). Emphasis thus has tended to be on the content of the program and its intended result.

Yet another perspective in professional development focuses on the "purpose" of professional development. In this regard, debates have also been waged as to whether emphasis should be more system centered or oriented towards the individual staff member (Greenfield, 1985).

The literature also pointed to the influence of various disciplines on the understanding of professional development. Whereas business and industry have been greatly associated with professional development and training due to their focus on production, other branches such as behavioral science and psychology have focused on individual development.

Zuber-Skerritt (1992) defined professional development as the "self-development and institutional management of administrative staff at all levels with reference to their activities and responsibilities as administrators in higher education" (p. 145). Castetter (1996) defined it as both informal and formal approaches to the improvement of human resources effectiveness (p. 232). To demonstrate the conceptual difference inherent in certain terms that are often used synonymously, Castetter (1996) differentiated between professional developments and in-service education. He noted that whereas professional

development is basically "growth oriented," in-service education "assumes a deficiency in the staff and presupposes a set of appropriate ideas, skills, and methods which need developing" (p. 232). Further, professional development does not assume a deficiency in the staff member; instead it assumes a need for people at work to grow and develop on the job.

Bukhala (1987) defined professional development as any activity that is undertaken to enhance one's performance. It may include planned development experience that is not directly related to one's present administrative assignment. Although it is true that professional development occurs naturally as one works daily in one's environment, most administrators agree that sufficient growth is not possible without a systematic plan for activities that are designed to develop specific skills, knowledge, and attitudes (Koehler, 1999; Bryan & Schwartz, 1998; Webb & Norton, 1999).

A major departure in terms of conceptualizing staff and professional development was provided by the literature that looked at the historical development of staff development initiatives in the African context. Bukhala (1987) argued, "All across Africa, most university staff development initiatives were initially bound closely to the de-colonization process" (p. 140). It was seen as a means to Africanize both the public and private sector. He noted that international agencies and former colonial powers supported this policy by providing manpower and resources, and national governments backed it with massive financial resources in recognition of the importance of universities. This policy paved the way for the initial conceptualization of staff development. Next, in the wake of independence, staff development in universities meant

support for academic training (mainly overseas) of local university staff, who would replace expatriate staff (Bukhala, 1987; Kashoki, 1994). According to Bukhala, at the dawn of independence African universities instituted and institutionalized a linear approach to staff development, especially in development of academic staff. In time this became true for administrators too. With this approach, staff development involves an incremental process that starts with identifying a promising student, monitoring his/her progress, appointing the individual after the first degree as a research assistant/teaching assistant, and later providing opportunity for masters and doctoral studies. After that the staff development process for that individual is over. By extension, staff development meant "formal programs for the achievement of excellence in the academic discipline through formal qualifications in the form of higher degrees." (p. 140). This notion still prevails in some sections of African universities, but with the dwindling of resources, universities have been forced to rethink priorities to reallocate financial resources and manpower.

Most definitions found in the higher education literature focused on faculty; however, some encompass all ranks. For instance, Nichols (2001) and Zuber-Skerritt, (1995) defined professional development in universities as an attempt to improve effectiveness in higher education. They stressed that it is an institutional process that seeks to modify the attitudes, skills, and behaviors of staff members to attain greater competence and effectiveness in meeting student needs, their own needs, and the needs of the institution.

For this study I have adopted a simple definition of professional development that is based on the Getzels-Guba (1957) model of social system. According to the model, as

adapted from Webb and Norton (1999) in Figure 4, "Each individual employee has unique dispositions based on personality factors while the institution has certain expectations for the purpose of the organization and what it desires from each employee" (p. 359). Consequently, "the area of agreement between personal needs and institutional expectations for the employees constitutes areas for progress" (359). Webb and Norton explained that,

As each person realizes new knowledge and skills, new and broadened aspirations of development become possible and through the use of effective motivation and a system of rewards related to improved performance, personal professional development becomes an ongoing, continuous process. (p. 359)

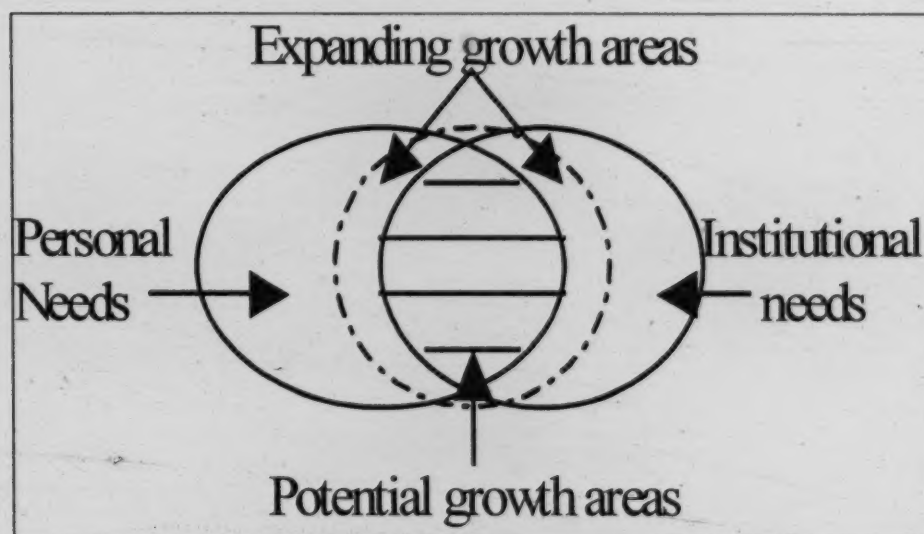


Figure 4. Conceptualization of professional development process in higher education (adapted from Webb & Norton, 1999, p. 360).

Expanding growth areas represent the various resultant outcomes that both the institution and the individual accrue as a result of PD processes and programs instituted in order to meet their needs. These include but are not limited to individual acquisition of

new knowledge, administrative skills, job satisfaction, motivation, attitudes and values and the organization's growth in areas of performance, quality services or teaching, fiscal responsibility, teamwork and image renewal.

While the above model conceptualizes the PD process, it should be looked at in relation to the framework provided in figure 6, which shows the relationships between key factors that influence this process and practice of professional development.

Professional Development and Organizational Theory

To understand the dynamics involved in higher education professional development, it is important, as Schwartz and Bryan (2000) advised, to place it in the context of organizational theory (p. 9). As stated earlier, universities are unique organizations. For instance, Middlehurst (1991), after examining various models of university governance, wrote that universities are unique organizations because they have "varied and often conflicting goals; professional staff; a high level of autonomy at unit level; part-time decision makers; environmental vulnerability; and a dual control system" (p. 4). Middlehurst also described universities as bureaucratic, collegial, political, organized anarchy, market, and cybernetics systems (p. 5).

Other professional development writers have argued that understanding the culture of the institution makes it easier to understand the perceptions of managers and administrators and the appropriateness of specific developmental activities. For example, Nichols (2001) stated that the relationship between university culture and strategic management is an element that needs careful and deliberate consideration if professional development is going to play a major role in the future of a university (p. 114). In this regard, the work of Bergquist (1992) on cultures of the academy is invaluable. Schwartz

and Bryan (2000), using the works of Bergquist (1992) and Bolman and Deal (1991), described higher education as consisting of a number of cultures: collegial, managerial, developmental, negotiative, and symbolic (p. 9). According to these writers, and others, notably Dill (1984), Greenfield (1985), Hackmann (1985), Middlehurst (1991), and Zuber-Skerrit (1992), the culture of an institution determines the outcome of professional development. To illustrate, Schwartz and Bryan (2000) outlined the forms that professional development takes in institutions that exhibit particular cultures:

In the collegial culture, professional development is an individual responsibility. In the managerial culture, a good manager assumes the paternal task of ensuring that professional development occurs and that employees participate. In a negotiation culture professional development is a negotiated opportunity or right. In a developmental culture, enlightened leaders or managers may expect that individuals want staff development, and help to provide it. In the symbolic frame, professional development may be a ritual, a rite of passage or part of a larger process. Professional development is a symbol of how to achieve organizational mobility and progress. In a symbolic organization, a myth about professional development may encourage more participation and raise level of interest. (p. 10)

Culture therefore as an organizational characteristic puts professional development into perspective. It helps us develop frames for understanding not only the rationale or purpose for professional development in higher education, but also the process and outcomes.

Rationale for Professional Development in Higher Education

This section reviews what writers have identified as rationales for professional development in higher education. In the literature about schools, colleges, and universities, researchers all agree that the basic assumptions underlying the rationale for administrator professional development are varied. Among the rationales examined here are the unique nature of universities and their administrators' roles, changes in the socio-

economic and technical environment, inadequate pre-service preparation, and changes in student demographics,

Unique Nature of Universities and Administrators' Roles

Many characteristics found in the literature point to the uniqueness of this cadre of staff, specifically in terms of their numbers in the university, their functions/roles, their importance to the university's development, and consequently, their need and influence on the nature of PD.

Non-teaching administrators also referred to in the literature as "middle-level administrators," constitute the largest administrative group within most college and university systems (Rosser, 2001). Sagaria and Johnsrud (1992) observed that the middle-level group makes up as much as 64% of all administrative staff positions in most universities. Apart from sizeable numbers, they have also been described as professional, skilled, loyal, and enthusiastic about their job (Austin, 1985; Scott, 1978). Despite their numbers and professionalism, studies have indicated that the non-teaching administrators lack visibility throughout the academy and have been of little concern to educational researchers (Johnsrud, 1999; Rosser, 2001; Scott, 1976). Scott (1978) noted that a direct significance of numbers is that they affect the tone, manner, and style of the entire institution in a major way and that their daily performance can determine the quality of relationships with faculty, students, and the publics they serve.

Another level of uniqueness lies in the relationships between administrator roles/functions and the university environment, which has been described as unique compared to those of other formal organizations (Bergquist, 1992; Birnbaum, 1988). Cohen and March (1974), Shtogren (1978), Boning (1982), Tumbly (1990), Bergquist

(1992), Zuber-Skerrit (1995), and Rosser (2001) all attested to the uniqueness of universities as organizations. Boning (1982) observed that there is a failure to appreciate the distinctive organizational characteristics of universities, which have often been seen to be the same as those of other formal organizations. He further contended that what is usually overlooked and not given much attention is that universities are in themselves large administrative units. In support of this assertion, Birnbaum (1988) argued that universities have tended to be problematic when managerial or administrative processes found in other kinds of organizations are applied.

Organizational uniqueness is further exemplified by the various models and perspectives offered by many writers to understand university administration. As a matter of fact, the various theoretical formulations and conceptualizations replete in the literature are the direct result of attempts to understand the multifaceted nature of the university administration. Among them is the "garbage can" model (Cohen & March, 1974; Hanson, 1982; Shtogren, 1978). Shtogren pointed out that in the "garbage can" theory of management (which he claimed is prevalent in universities), problems, choices, and solutions are not matched in orderly ways or on a timely basis. As a result, many problems are dealt with by "flight," "oversight," and sometimes resolutions (p. 28). As well, there is the "theatre" perspective, wherein organizations and their members act out their different roles (Bolman & Deal, 1991; Harman, 1989). Other authors characterized universities as "organized anarchies" (Harman, 1989; Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, & Riley, 1978; Cohen & March, 1974) and viewed them as having three general properties: problematic goals, unclear technology, and fluid participation. Many authors conceptualized universities in this way and recognized the impact that these features have

on management and administration. Shtogren (1978), citing Cohen and March (1974), wrote:

Much of our present theory of management introduces mechanisms for control and coordination that assume the existence of well-defined goals and technology, as well as substantial participant involvement in the affairs of the organization. When goals and technology are hazy, and participation is fluid, many of the axioms and standard procedure of management collapse. (pp. 27-28)

Given this situation, it is imperative that administrators have skills in the political arena—skills in lobbying, negotiating, and building constituent support. They also need a high tolerance for ambiguity, complexity, and disorder (Shtogren, 1978, p. 28).

In terms of unique functions, the literature indicated that universities as large administrative units have a wide variety. Porter and Padley's (1982) commentary on university and administrative functions indicates that not only do they contain large populations of students, but they are also employers of significant numbers of staff, handle huge sums of funds, and engage in community service. Specific functions in which the universities are known to perform as identified by a number of authors, include planning and organizing university business, identifying and preparing future developments, designing and constructing buildings, managing a large staff, installing considerable equipment, providing accommodation, attending to the welfare of thousands of students, providing infrastructure for the entire university is activities, solving students' social problems, purchasing food supplies for patients in the university hospital, securing energy supplies, carrying on foreign relations, concluding formal agreements with these foreign countries, and maintaining contact with their own government (Shtogren, 1978; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995). Warner and Crosthwaite (1995) likewise listed four functions of university administrators as having to manage operations, manage

finance, manage people, and manage information. When all of these functions are put together, universities often find themselves faced with problems of large economic proportions.

In summing up the importance of middle-level administration, Rosser (2000) and Tumbly (1990) termed them *advisers, analysts, counselors, specialists, technicians, and officers* on whom faculty and students have come to rely and trust. Consequently, many scholars agreed that specific professional development initiatives are required so that administrators can meet the unique roles associated with the university administration and management.

Changes in Socioeconomic and Technical Fields

New trends in the socioeconomic and technical fields have prompted universities to recognize the need for a more organized and systematic approach to professional development (Porter & Padley, 1982). Currently, higher education is characterized by increases in the use of technology as well as fiscal restraints at a time when the scale of operation has drastically increased (Kauffman, 1990; UNESCO, 1998). The implications based on the above are that universities have become large spenders of money.

Consequently, as many writers have said, new methods of operations have emerged that have led to greater complexity of organization and procedure (Ajayi, 1995; Porter & Padley, 1982; UNESCO, 1998).

The literature indicated that, across the board, universities have introduced specialist staff in a number of areas to deal with such matters as finance, computerization, industrial relations, marketing, and fund raising (Middlehurst, 1991; Rottenburg, 1987; UNESCO, 1998). All of these changes, together with the changes imposed by

government legislation, have placed new demands on university administrators to grasp and understand new concepts and techniques and to ensure that they are integrated with the other more traditional branches of the administration. According to Ajayi (1995), transition stages are good opportunities to develop university administrators.

Lack of or Inadequate Pre-service Preparation

It is evident from the literature that preparation specifically geared towards university administration is lacking. The literature has pointed out that most universities draw their administrators from among their faculty, the private sector, or the school system (Abagi, 1999; McDade, 1987; Amey, 1990). It also stated that most of them combine the knowledge and training acquired from previous sectors and thus lack basic tools and skills to manage unique environments such as universities. Most universities in the western world, in recognition of this fact, have instituted professional development programs for their administrative staff once they are in service.

UNESCO (1998) argued that the inadequacy of preservice preparation and lack of training for most universities in Africa has played a major role in institutional mismanagement and decline. Abagi (1997) and Sifuna (1997) both agreed that in Kenya most public university administrators entering middle-level administration come from the school system or are employed directly from universities after attaining their first degree. They further noted that the majority of those entering senior management often come from the faculty (teaching staff) and from various fields of study. In both cases they lack relevant training in the fundamentals of administration as well as the management skills necessary to run large enterprises such as universities. Further Koech (1999) reports the findings of a Government of Kenya commission of inquiry into the education system of

Kenya that reported grave mismanagement owing to political appointments to senior level administration to the detriment of university governance. It noted that most of these political appointees lack the basics in management, as most are professional in fields other than management.

The literature also pointed out the fact that administrator development programs in Kenya have been inconsistent. According to Bukhala (1985), there was no deliberate attempt to plan and institute programs for registrars and their administrative staff in Kenya, or the entire East African regions, since the collapse of the University of East Africa in 1970.

Beside the above, for a long time pre-service preparation for administration has not been seen as an essential requirement for administration, and it has been given little emphasis. It has been assumed that administration can be performed without higher qualification (Abagi, 1999; Bukhala, 1985). The lack of pre-service necessitates professional development to equip staff with relevant skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

Changes in Student Demographics

The changes in student characteristics experienced in the last decade have been documented widely in the literature in all regions of the world. This has brought in an era of sweeping reforms in university management as well as changes in terms of student service and provisions. A key feature in the array of growing diversity in the student characteristics is the increase in the number of non-traditional students. In Kenya, with the introduction of parallel programs and satellite campuses in major cities, there is an increase in the entry of adult students returning after many years of part-time working professionals, and of other non-traditional and/or under prepared students (Abagi, 1999;

Sifuna, 1997; Koech, 1999). Consequently, administrator development calls for flexibility and new strategies to meet the needs of the increasingly evolving student characteristics.

Purposes of Administrator Development

The review of the literature revealed that the aims of administrators in higher education vary from one writer to another. Identified in a large body of literature are the following objectives:

- to help staff perform effectively and efficiently in their current job roles through acquisition of skills and knowledge (UNESCO, 1998),
- to provide opportunities for staff to equip themselves with personal education for career development (Schwartz & Bryan, 1998),
- to prepare staff to meet changing duties and responsibilities (Cannon, 1981; Nichols, 2001),
- to enhance job satisfaction (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999; Webb & Norton, 1999; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995),
- To institutionalize organizational vision (Formbrum and Devanna, 1984).

Implied in many definitions of professional development is the purpose of institutional goals. This notion forms perhaps the most accepted idea that the attainment of both individual and institutional continuous growth is the basic purpose of professional development. Thus, Warner and Crosthwaite (1995) stated, professional development is to "develop individuals so as to continuously improve management practices and therefore improve the organization's ability to meet its own objectives" (p. 140). Webb

and Norton (1999) captured what many writers saw as the major purposes of staff/professional development in education, namely:

- to provide the planned learning necessary for employees to perform at the level of competency required in their current and future positions or assignments;
- to provide a climate that fosters opportunity for personal self-fulfillment and institutional effectiveness, a climate that facilitates human creativity and system renewal;
- to enhance institutional goals while providing and enhancing quality teaching and learning for students;
- to save money in order to inhibit staff attrition and discouraging the acceptance of barely satisfactory work as the norm; and
- to enable system personnel to work cooperatively towards achieving the system's goal and their own personal goals in the areas of achievement, satisfaction, and self-fulfillment.

In terms of satisfaction and motivation, Cowan (1997) cited findings from a survey by Brown and Atkin (1986) of 41 universities and colleges in Britain. In their report they advocated strongly for an increased level of professional development, arguing that it "serves to enhance morale in higher education, while creating greater self esteem among staff through peer and organizational support which comes from successful training" (p. 122).

Fombrum, and Devanna (1984) observed that PD programs can and have been used to institutionalize organizational vision. This, according to them is achieved through

ensuring that the management skills and the philosophy of the organization are incorporated in training and development experiences are consistent with the vision. They argue that the impact of the development programs planned in this way will be evident over time and will help shape the institution develop skills that are consistent with its vision.

Although all the above may be seen as general outcomes of professional development, a number have grouped them into domains such as (a) increased human potential (individual development), (b) institutional/organizational development, (c) leadership development, and (d) career development and progression.

Increased Human Potential

Based on the view expressed by many researchers that a substantial number of administrators characteristically possess limited administrative training and managerial skills, most writers agreed that the basic purpose for professional development of administrators in universities is to increase human potential and capacity in terms of job performance and effectiveness in their respective roles (Castetter, 2004, 1996; Guskey, 1986). Most administrators fit into this generalization especially because many are selected on the basis of academic qualifications. Orlich (1989) stated that the basic premise of all individual-based professional development programs draws from the notion that the individuals make the difference between an effective and an ineffective organization (p. 118). Castetter (1996) similarly argued, "Improvement of human performance calls for a variety of approaches to modify behaviour patterns of individuals and groups so that institutional effectiveness may be maximized" (p. 235). This purpose is the target of many professional development programs often categorized as in-service

education. However, research points to a possible discrepancy between training programs and outcomes (non-causality) (Orlich, 1989, p. 69). On causality and professional development, Guskey (1986) warned that assumptions associated with linear designs for in-service education may be invalid.

Fisher (1978) further explained that individual development as part of developing human potential responds to specific needs. These have often taken the form of updating oneself on administrative concerns such as personnel policies, trustee relationships, planning and budgeting, fundraising, legal issues, and student services.

Institutional or Organizational Development

Researchers in the literature used the terms *institutional* and *organizational development* interchangeably. Early works by Bergquist and Philips (1975) and Nordvall (1979) and recent writers such as Castetter (2004) and Webb and Norton (1999) clearly pointed to institutional development as one of the major components of staff development. They indicated that institutional development, as a goal of professional development, seeks to improve the entire organizational system or some major subsystem over several years. Bergquist and Philips (1975) further argued that complete staff development must deal with issues such as decision-making, inter-group relations, conflicts, power and authority, group processes, and managerial styles.

Looked at in the context of professional development, the literature showed that institutional development is a necessary result of individual development programs. Boyer and Grasha (1978) succinctly captured the essence of institutional development and staff development in this regard:

Institutional development is an educational process by which human resources are continually identified, allocated and expanded in ways that make these resources more available to the organization, and therefore, improve the organization's problem solving capacities. The most general objective of institutional development is to develop self-renewing, self correcting systems of people who learn to organize themselves in a variety of ways to the nature of their tasks, and who continue to cope with changing demands the environment makes on the organization. (p. 21)

Leadership Development

Leadership development in many institutions of higher learning has taken the form of identifying pools of underrepresented groups in the organization so that they can participate in special leadership development projects. Orlich (1989) reported that in many educational institutions a number of women and members of visible minorities, by attending seminars, institutes, and internships and by being appointed to major committees, have received leadership and administrative credentials. Subsequently, many have been promoted to positions of authority. As a matter of fact, many universities in North America, Australia, and Europe have developed centers offering training programs for administrator leadership development.

Career Progression

McDade (1987) contended that one way to investigate and understand the professional development habits and needs of college and university administrators is to understand their career paths (p. 1). The literature showed that until very recently no special career or profession has been recognized for university non-academic administrators. McDade asserted that even though administrators have always existed in universities, their role had not been recognized as a profession. As such, for a long time

universities have been very dependent on new recruits, generally graduates, with a wide variety of qualifications.

A series of studies on career paths of non-academic administrators reported by McDade (1987) both in Britain and the United States revealed that, like academic administrators, non-academic administrators build their careers in several ways. Overall, the emergence of university administration as a profession with a clear career pattern, with the possibility of entering as a junior administrator and progressing through the ranks to more senior positions, has led to increased demands for training and professional development, particularly from the more junior administrators. However, he acknowledged the fact that participation in the "right" professional development will not necessarily increase promotability.

Castetter (1996) identified different career stages from three sources: (a) early stage, tenured stage, retirement stage; (b) pre-work stage, initial work stage, stable work stage, retirement stage; (c) establishment stage, advancement stage, maintenance stage, and withdrawal stage (p. 246). He stated that "the intent of each is to stress that professional development occurs over time, goes through several stages, cuts across a wide range of development issues, and includes changing tasks and personal needs" (p. 244). Despite the increased demand, it is also true that the complexity of university administration is such that the available training cannot cover the special features of a university administration.

Like McDade (1987), Rosser (2001) observed that career paths of middle-level administrators are highly individualized and pose special needs and distinctive challenges to the universities. McDade notes that, in higher education, career progress is highly

individualized, erratic, and circumstantial (p. 8) and that although this variety of experiences provides a richness of outlook, it militates against a common base of skills and abilities (p. 8). This, he concluded, forces the universities to use experiential learning much more than planned professional development programs (p. 8).

As a result of this understanding, many universities and colleges have taken to incorporating career stages in the design of professional development programs (Porter & Padley, 1982, Cembrowski, 1997). A number of universities have also moved to ensure that professional development becomes a policy commitment and that they are continually providing development opportunities to administrative personnel (Cowan, 1997; McDade, 1987; Middlehurst, 1991).

Levels and Forms of Professional Development

Levels of Professional Development

Schwartz and Bryan (1998) outlined what they called levels of professional development. According to them, each level is differentiated in terms of focus, participants, and form. They further observed that "although there is a widespread agreement about the value of and need for professional development, there is less consensus on how to accomplish it" (p. 9). Although they acknowledged the existence of many forms of professional development, they argued that the common foci found in universities are as follows:

Individual: According to Schwartz and Bryan (1998), this is a level where individuals are active in their own professional development. Forms of this could involve taking university courses leading to a degree program, taking short courses, participating in workshops, and mentoring.

Group or program: This involves a cluster of individuals who have common interests or professional responsibility and who come together to learn new skills (Preston, 1993; Schwartz & Bryan, 1998).

Department: Schwartz and Bryan (1998) observed that most of the work in universities is organized around specific work groups and that the department is the simplest form of organization. They argued that although the department represents a loose confederation of individuals with or without the same interests, professional development often is addressed at the departmental level. This may include certain issues such as new skills for the department to address the needs of clientele or the use of new technology.

Division: In many universities most programs are organized under a hierarchical structure with the vice president, registrar, or dean at the head. According to Schwartz and Bryan (1998), at this level, professional development pulls together many groups of people for a common purpose. They further stated that this type of professional development activity starts as a result of directives from higher authority. At the divisional level professional development usually takes the form of workshops or a gathering. The key difference here, according to Schwartz and Bryan, is that a "general program may not allow for individual interest or concern because, by design, the effort is to affect the largest possible number of people" (p. 7).

Professional associations: This level involves efforts by local, regional, and national professional bodies to provide professional development opportunities to members. Often, national and international conferences, workshops, seminars, discussion groups, and other forms of information sharing are made available.

Caffarella and Zinn (1999), in defining continuing professional development, suggested that it encompasses three types: (a) self-directed learning experiences, (b) formal professional development programs, and (c) organizational development strategies. They argued that in a professional career, professional development most often takes the self-directed route. This includes learning activities that are planned, implemented, and evaluated primarily by administrators. Formal professional development programs such as professional meetings, workshops, and conferences offered at local regional, national and international levels are also common forms. Organizational development, which Caffarella and Zinn (1999) characterize as a systematically planned change effort for the purpose of developing and implementing action strategies for organizational improvement, is to explicitly affect organizational change rather than individual change. They further contended that this type of professional development is implemented by administrators and/or by central offices of faculty. Some of the examples cited for this type include the adoption of total quality management (TQM) strategies or any activity aimed at changing the culture or the climate of the institution.

Forms of Professional Development

Schwartz and Bryan (1998) argued that there are three types of professional development: formal, nonformal, and informal. Formal professional development is "active, intentional training or education such as classes, specific workshops, or designed learning opportunities, often for credit or continuing education" (p. 9). Non-formal professional development, they stated, may encompass many activities, such as brown-bag lunches, speaker sessions, department training programs, orientation programs, and

professional association training and activities (p. 9). Informal professional development includes observation, job shadowing, learning by example, and mentoring activities (p. 9).

Schwartz and Bryan (1998) provided an historical perspective of understanding the origin and growth of these forms of professional development. According to them, between the 1950s and 1960s many Western countries experienced growth in their university systems. Consequently, there was an increase in the number of administrators (Pulman, 1981; Williams, 1982). Due to the expansion, many administrators were asked to undertake a wide variety of duties depending on the demands of time and, consequently, gained a great deal of experience, thereby equipping themselves to take up senior positions when the opportunity presented itself (Williams, p. 58).

According to Williams (1982), the expansion period came to an end in the 1970s, making it difficult for administrators within the university systems to climb up the career ladder. Consequently, he continued, the universities witnessed a considerable growth in professional development opportunities and much more concern with career development (p. 59). Universities initiated this growth in development activities partly so that administrators who were unlikely to be promoted could still experience job satisfaction and so that those with the opportunity to progress could obtain the necessary experience and skill. Cannon (1983) observed that even today many universities continue to establish specialist centers whose task it is to carry out various forms of professional development activities for staff.

Porter and Padley (1982) stated that the various forms of professional development for administrators, especially "formal training," have continued to reflect

the "support" role that administrators play in relation to other sections of the university. What has also been reflected in the nature of training programs is that many university administrators have had experience in other kinds of work before embarking on a university administration career. They pointed out that, until recently, training, as a form of professional development has been largely on-the-job and by example. Consequently, they concluded, in many places the demand and need for formal training programs and external courses have been small.

According to Warner and Crosthwaite (1995), for any form of professional development program to be successful in a university, there must be a mechanism that allows line managers to become key developers of their own staff (p. 140). They further explained that this line management supported function needs to be recognized and implemented by governors at the top of the institution so that there will be continuity and a trickle-down throughout the organization (p. 140). Porter and Padley (1982) reported that in Britain the value and importance of internal development programs and policies has been recognized. The programs that make use of internal resources at little cost are often instituted as part of the normal working arrangements. A range of methods is available, including on-the-job supervision, job rotation, committee briefings, information sessions, workshops, administrative library, interuniversity visits, and participative exercises that often encompass activities such as case studies, video-based exercises, role playing, and simulation/games.

Currently, in most universities professional development programs occur at a local level; there are few opportunities at national and international levels. Some of the

forms of professional development activities that are common at the local level examined below are; induction (orientation) and in-service training.

Induction/Orientation

In general, professional development of university administrators begins at the point of entry into the system. McCaig (1982) stated that induction into the university system is a necessarily long period of socialization when values of membership in the institution and the commitment to the discipline are inculcated. Porter and Padley (1982) explained that induction/orientation in universities usually takes the form of duties and lines of responsibility being fully explained to a new member of staff on his/her arrival and regular discussion taking place with the immediate supervisor over the first few months. The idea is that the staff members acquire a command of the procedures, customs, traditions, and values of the university (Collete, 1994). Additionally, in many instances new administrators are provided with copies of relevant booklets and prospectuses relating to the institution and can consult many documents that have been produced for the university's administration (Porter & Padley, 1982). Information of this kind is intended to help staff to gain knowledge of their particular positions within the university. Failure to socialize, according to Marshall and Kasten (cited in <http://eric.uoregon.edu>), leads to new staff mimicking old staff with a possibility of developing inconsistency and informality in the organization.

Although this is a very crucial point in the development of the administrator, the literature indicated that this role is usually not given the emphasis it deserves (McCaig, 1982). A recent needs-assessment survey of the APOs at the University of Alberta (1998) revealed a significant disregard for this process. The data indicated that 82% of

respondents had not received an orientation for their current APO position, 85% indicated that there was no formal orientation process within their faculty, and 77% felt that an orientation is critical for the APO position. A great number stressed the fact that due to the lack of this process, their professionalism was hampered. Their ability to develop themselves was affected significantly by the availability or absence of opportunities to locate resources and key information that are useful to their position; by their inability to grasp the incredible number of policies, procedures, and structures within the university; by the workings of the university; by the programs available to APOs; and by their evaluation system (p. 15).

Inservice Training Opportunities

Inservice education or inservice training is one of the various development programs that universities afford their administrators. Inservice education takes the form of job rotation, seminars, workshops, short internal and external courses, and study visits (Williams, 1982, p. 60). In some universities, administrators who wish to change jobs are usually provided with the opportunity. However, Williams contended that not very many universities practice job movement on a systematic basis, but take advantage of situations that occur when vacancies are available.

Within inservice, the most common form of professional development that is used by universities is training seminars (Williams, 1982). In the seminars, lectures are provided as well as the use of materials currently available, such as videotapes, films, role-playing information, and so on. It is often common to find that the more regular administrative seminars and workshops that are organized by administrators for administrators often target the top cadre of administrators. Academic administrators also

often dominate them. The literature also indicated that levels of administrators within the institution influence the forms of in-service training.

Figure 5, which is a modification of a model first proposed by Lockwood and Schuster (1976) and adopted by Porter and Padley (1982), indicates that professional development is a recursive process that spans the entire career of every individual administrator. As administrators progress up the career ladder, their roles, duties, and responsibilities change. Professional development programs open to administrators at the various levels of career development differ, so that by retirement, university administrators will have gone through a series of programs with different foci and different aims. After examining administrator development processes in British universities, Porter and Padley (1982) observed that in the lifetime of an administrator, professional development processes would have enabled him/her to be inducted into the policies, goals, procedures, and basic foundational cultures and beliefs of the university. In addition, she/he will have been provided with techniques of administration and problem solving, such as decision- and policy-making techniques. This will have been accomplished formally, non-formally, or informally through professional development forms or approaches such as induction, in-service education, internal and external courses, and visits.

Challenges and Impediments to Professional Development of Administrators in Universities

Professional development of a university administrator has been shown to be instrumental in organizational effectiveness and development. However, the literature is replete with findings of low or non-participation rates.

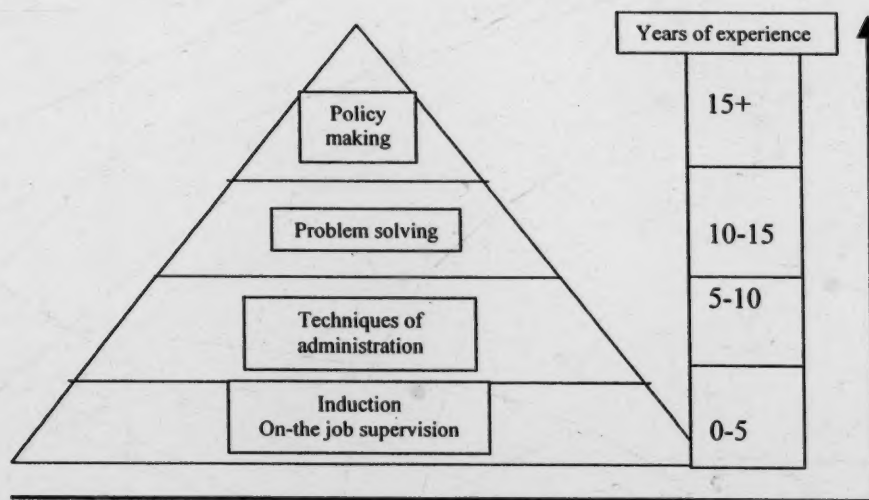


Figure 5. Model for career-long administrator development in higher education (adapted from Porter & Padley, 1982).

In a survey conducted in 1997 at the University of Alberta that sought to assess the administrative and management training and development needs of APOs, it was found that a large percentage of APOs participated either nominally or not at all. Furthermore, in the majority of cases the number of hours spent in professional development activities was very low (University of Alberta, 1998, p. 12): 60% of respondents had participated for 0-25 hours in formal professional development over the preceding year, and, of this number, 25% had not participated in any formal professional development within the past year. It was also reported that 59% of respondents had participated in 0-25 hours of informal professional development over the preceding year, and 34% had not participated in any informal professional development activities in the year. These findings suggest that there had not been an aggressive stand and policy at the

university to develop this level of administrators. In the light of these and other findings, several measures to strengthen professional development were proposed.

In a survey done at British universities, Rottenburg (1987) identified seven major impediments to administrator professional development:

1. low priority, lack of support;
2. lack of reward for or incentive to attend training sessions;
3. existence of panels and committees in charge of professional development—
but inactive;
4. lack of time;
5. existing perceptions of staff training;
6. difficulties of timetabling; and
7. lack of specific funding.

Similarly, in 1991 the Universities' Staff Development and Training Unit in Britain compiled a report on British universities that stressed that

1. staff development was seen as a peripheral activity that did not form an integral part of the institutional and departmental planning;
2. much of the training and development was still ad hoc and patchy, with little rationale and underpinning;
3. provision was imbalanced, and more needed to be done for ancillary, clerical, manual, secretarial, and technical staff;
4. resources for staff development were still inadequate in all aspects; and
5. staff development was not seen by management as the priority activity it ought to be, and individuals lacked clear and continuing professional

development programs as an integral part of their contacts and work schedules.

The University of Alberta's survey of APOs also identified six key barriers to participating in professional development activities:

1. lack of time,
2. lack of financial resources,
3. lack of human resources,
4. lack of organizational support,
5. lack of information, and
6. lack of guidance.

Of the respondents, 77% indicated that the greatest barrier was lack of time. This was followed by lack of financial resources and lack of human resources, respectively.

This point was captured well by one respondent, who remarked:

In general, the university needs to allow people the time to learn. It costs money because it is not only the cost of the course or training but also means that work gets left on your desk and needs to get done somehow. If there is going to be a serious effort on the part of the university, they have to realize they need to give people the time and resources to do just that. They might have to back-fill their position—or authorize overtime—there is only so much goodwill you can count on. Time becomes an issue. (p. 13)

Another barrier in certain instances is the argument that sending administrators for professional development programs is ill advised—on the grounds that the institution invests time, energy, and money in development, only to have the administrators move to other institutions. This argument seems to be true for middle-level administrators whose only means for climbing up the career ladder is accepting lower-senior or senior positions at other universities.

A number of studies in African higher education with regard to impediments to professional development pointed to the lack of resources (Ajayi, et al, 1996; UNESCO, 1995, 1998); lack of strategic plans and constant use of ad hocism (DAE, 1999; Farrant & Afonso, 1997; Mwiria, 1992); the structure and decision-making process (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, et al, 1996; Girdwood, 1997); staff loss, lack of incentive, and the concept that attainment of higher degrees is the only legitimate form of career advancement (Kashoki, 1994); and lack of staff development policies (Farrant & Afonso, 1997; Rottenburg, 1987; UNESCO, 1998).

Nordvall (1979) and Boyer and Grasha (1978) posited that constraints that affect the development of administrators professionally in universities include the resistance to modify old ways, role conflicts between administrators and faculty, and the ambiguous goals and power relations of a university.

Lack of evaluation of professional development has also been identified as a major impediment to successful programs in universities. The literature identified a gap in terms of institutions evaluating staff performance as to how far they achieve administrative goals and in evaluating training and development programs. It also pointed that where evaluation is done, there is a great deal of subjectivity and therefore a lack of empirical data for quality programs for staff. The literature also showed that the lack of carefully planned programs results in failure, and therefore, as McDade (1987) indicated, no one wants to report failed programs.

Nordvall (1979) examined the evaluation of administrators and reported a fair amount of subjectivity because many of the criteria used were based on the evaluator's perceptions. The collection of information for evaluation purposes is not a clear-cut

process and militates against a systematic assessment of both administrators and professional development programs.

In many universities the evaluation process has been the basis for professional development. Staff evaluations of university administrators help identify areas of needed and/or desired individual or institutional improvement.

Towards a Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Theoretical Underpinnings and Perspective

I share the view expounded by Joongbloed, Maasen, and Neave (1999) that understanding organizational phenomena is served better by applying competing theories rather than assuming that one specific theory is superior. In this regard this study is influenced, guided, and informed by aspects of three distinct yet related theories. The literature indicated that a number of studies viewed professional development as a means to achieve organizational development, organizational adaptation, and organizational change (Middlehurst, 1991). This helps to explain why a number of key theories in organizational development and change have been used to situate staff and professional development in higher education. The theoretical framework used in this study is based on three models: the resource dependency model; the neo-institutional model; and the open system (contingency model).

Resource Dependency Model

This theory as presented in this study, though was popularized by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), draws heavily on the works of Maasen and Gornitzka (1999) and Joongbloed, et al. (1999). According to Maasen and Gornitzka, the resource dependency theory shares with earlier open systems theory the assumption that organizations are

flexible. According to the proponents, the basic starting point of the theory is that decisions are made within the political organizational structure of the organization as it attempts to manipulate the environment to its advantage. The theory implies that, rather than be passive recipients of the environmental forces, organizations will make strategic decisions about adapting to the environment (Maasen & Gornitzka, 1999).

Maasen and Gornitzka (1999) proposed that a resource dependency perspective starts with the notion that to understand organizations, one must understand how organizations relate to other social actors in their environment. This, according to them, runs counter to the idea of viewing organizations as "self-directed and autonomous entities pursuing their own ends undisturbed by their social contexts" (p. 297). They quoted Pfeffer and Salancik (1978, p. 257), who argued that higher education organizations "are other directed, constantly struggling for autonomy and discretion faced with constraints and external control" (p. 297).

The theory does not accept the "external determinism" view, in which only external factors drive organizational actions. Maasen and Gornitzka (1999) explained that the model "relies heavily on a political view of inter and intra-organizational interaction" (p. 297), which is a departure from the mainstream open systems view in its emphasis on how "organizations act strategically and make active choices to make them manage their dependency on those parts of their environment that control vital resources" (p. 297). This means that institutional response is not necessarily "automatic and passive but rather active and volitional" (p. 297).

Maasen and Gornitzka (1999) posited a number of scenarios/assumptions central to this model:

- Organizations are usually in a position of interdependencies. They stated that the potential for one organization to influence another derives from its discretionary control of resources that are needed by the other and the other's dependence on the resources, lack of countervailing resources, and access to an alternative (p. 298). The greater the power of external stakeholder, the greater the external determinism; whereas the greater the organizational power, the greater the capacity for organizational choice (p. 298).
- Organizations have other options apart from complying with external demands. They can manage and manipulate their dependencies in several ways.
- Environments are not treated as "objective realities." Responses to the environment depend on how an organization learns and processes information to give meaning to its environment and how its contexts may affect it. Also, because organizations operate in complex environments and often with conflicting and competing demands, the organizational response is not always the same.
- The contest over control within the organization intervenes to effect the enactment of organizational environments. In other words, because "coping with critical contingencies is an important determinant of influence, sub-units will seek to enact environments to favor their position" (p. 298).

Overall, as Maasen and Gornitzka (1999), summed it up:

To understand organizational change or development, it is not enough to investigate the "objective" resource dependencies and interdependencies. It is also necessary to examine the way organizations perceive their environments, how they act to control and avoid dependencies, the role of organizational leadership

in the processes, as well as the way internal power distributions affect and are affected by external dependencies. (p. 298)

Neo-Institutional Theory

The neo-institutional model also expounded by Scott (1981) depicts an institution as consisting of "cognitive, normative, and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behavior" (Joongbloed, et al., 1999, p. 8). Proponents of this theory see institutions as being transported by various carriers — cultures, structures, and routines — and see these carriers as operating at multiple levels of jurisdiction (p. 8).

Open System (Contingency) Model

To further understand the relationships of the various related aspects of PD, open system and contingency theory are used.

An organizational system, as portrayed in the literature, consists of a set of interrelated components surrounded by a boundary. Organizational system analysts have further characterized the system as being either closed or open (Hanson, 1991). An open system, which is adopted for this study's framework, is one that actively and constructively interacts with its environments. The open system perspective (also in some literature referred to as the contingency perspective) contributes to the understanding of professional development insofar as the university is made up of subsystems that are interdependent and relate in a manner to give order and meaning to the entire system (Hanson, 1991).

Contingency theory (Scott, 1981) posits that the best way for the organization to "organize depends on the nature of environment to which the organization must relate"

(Joongbloed, et al., 1999, p. 7). The implication, furthermore, is that the more uncertain and complex its environment, the more differentiated an organization has to be in order to be successful (Joongbloed, et al., 1999). Contingency theorists such as Maasen and Gornitzka (1999) used a simple model of exchange wherein organizational action is taken in response to the environment, but the environment is not affected by organizational action. Therefore, organizations to them were principally perceived as reactive, so that if a change in the environment threatens critical resource relationships, an organization will adapt its prevailing "repertoire" of exchange relationships in order to arrive at an equilibrium that guarantees a continuous flow of critical resources.

System theorists analyzing institutions of higher learning view a university as having two environments — one external to itself and the other its own internal environment. Both environments are seen to possess variables that interact. Hanson (1991) and Cannon (1983) have further suggested that organizations such as universities, which have uncertain and diverse environments, tend to be composed of differentiated and integrated subsystems.

System theorists further viewed internal adjustments of an organization as attempts to meet the changing demands of the organization's external and internal environments. Accordingly, Hanson (1991) stated that contingency theory requires that variability in environmental needs demands variability in organizational response (p. 154). Silver (1983) stated that an open system "imports many diverse elements at a rapid rate from the environment and uses these inputs for the interaction among components in production of diverse outputs" (p. 54).

Moi University, the subject of this study, is a vibrant open system that interacts in a dynamic way with its economic, political, socio-cultural, demographic and technological environments. The framework that I proposed was to assess the administrator development characteristics, processes, and outcomes of Moi University's professional development initiatives in the light of the above review.

The Analytical Framework

My framework (Figure 6) reflects the main features of open systems assumptions: input, process, output, and feedback. The framework, which is influenced by studies done by Aidoo-Taylor (1986), Hanson (1991), Cannon (1983), and Shtogren (1978), is used to guide the presentation of the findings of this study. The model presents diagrammatically the assumptions and relationship between the environments, inputs, transformational processes, outcomes, and feedback elements of the system. The model also presents institutional variables that are seen to be important factors that influence the type of process adopted. Included in this regard are managerial practices, organizational characteristics, administrative variables, and environmental influences.

The basic thesis of this framework is that professional development is governed by the interplay of administrative staff characteristics, professional development designs, implementation processes, and the characteristics of extra-institutional and internal institutional working environments. It further views the outcomes of professional development initiatives as a function of selected staff's personal and educational characteristics, well-designed and -implemented development programs that are connected and sustained, and a supportive working environment from which the staff will emerge, then come back.

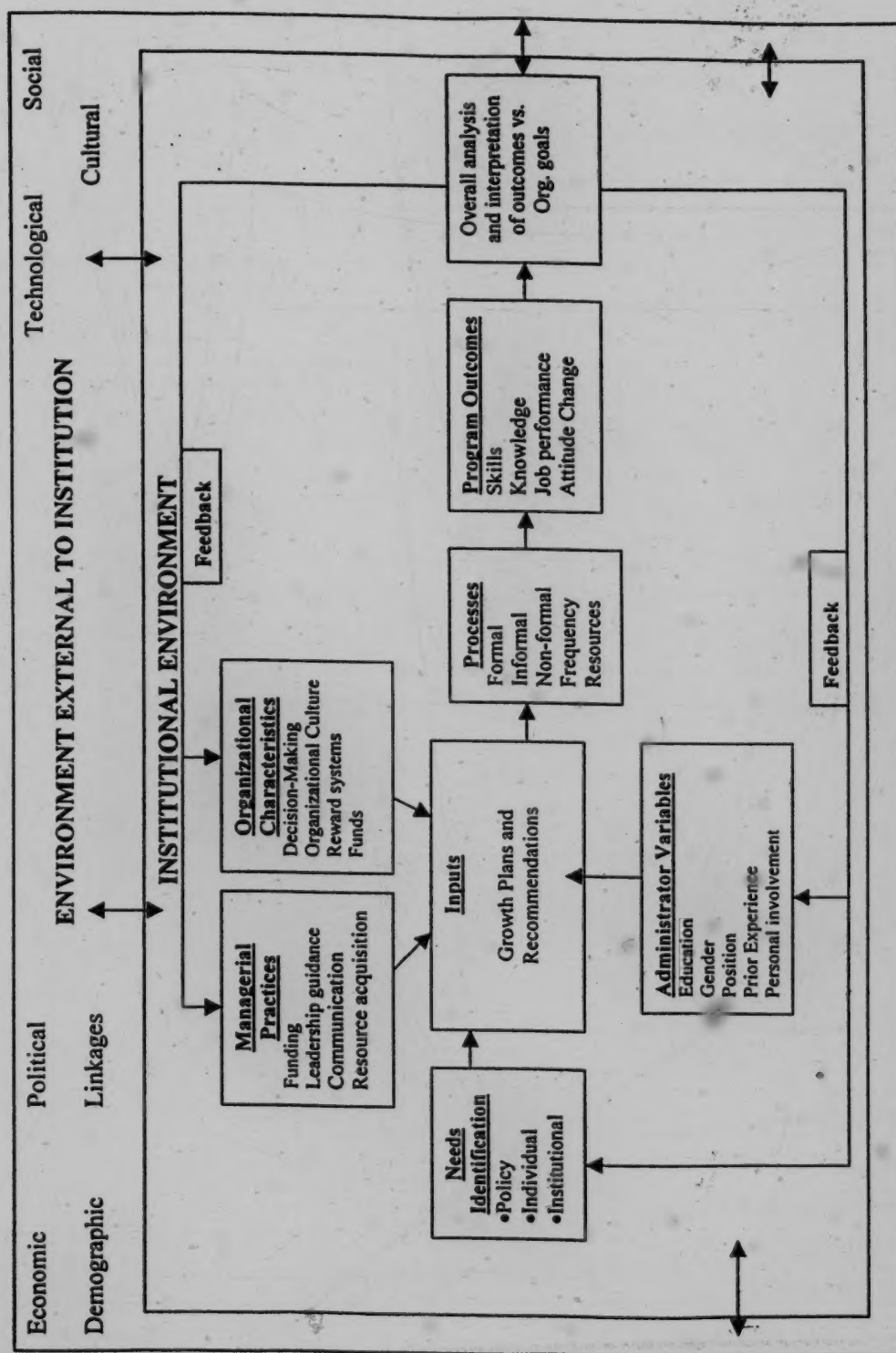


Figure 6: A systems framework for understanding Administrator development.

Needs Assessment

The literature indicated that effective professional development must begin with an examination of both individual and institutional needs (Castetter and Young, 2004). Needs assessment is credited with providing a useful method of improving an organization's capacity for planning, priority setting, and resource allocation (Prachongchit, 1984). Specifically, researchers have indicated that needs assessment serves to identify policies, aims, strategies, methods, personal involvement, and organizational arrangements for administrative development (Watkins and Altschuld (1995); Philips and Holton (1995). Previous studies have suggested that both individual and institutional needs assessments are lacking in institutions due to a lack of skills in assessing the needs (Bolan, 1982).

Inputs

Inputs are essentially the growth plans efforts and recommendations for administrator development processes and programs. This is where variables from both the external and internal environments are channelled towards administrator development programs. Specifically, in this regard, input elements from the external environment — such as economics (funding trends), politics (state relations, patronage), social (societal demands and expectations), student demographics, and technology—are identified and harnessed. Also, internal institutional variables—such as administrator variables, managerial practices, and organizational characteristics—are identified. It is in the interaction of two inputs and the results of the needs assessment that professional development processes are defined.

Process

The process element in the framework helps to comprehend the various types of professional development programs. It encompasses the choice of strategies, activities, and implementation processes. Forms of professional development, especially of a formal nature, are key in this element. Further, this element also helps to comprehend resources for the PD programs. It also influences the frequency of the forms of activities that would be most effective in achieving desired goals.

Program Outcomes

This is the stage in which immediate outcomes of the program implementation are assessed. The expected aims of the program include attaining the skills, knowledge, job performance and attitude change.

Analysis and Interpretation for Effectiveness

In this stage the overall and cumulative effects of the programs on both the individual and the institution are assessed for effectiveness in terms of process designs, content, and the overall meeting of set goals.

Feedback

This is the phase where the outcomes are compared with the original aims and goals identified during the needs assessment or input stage. Systems analysts have suggested that any differences that may arise should be treated as new and emerging needs, necessitating the start of the whole cycle (Hanson, 1991). Consistent with the notion that professional development is a continuous process, the feedback phase is also seen as a continuous process, with the frequency of the cycle being a function of the number of variables considered (Aidoo-Taylor, 1986).

The model depicts administrator development as a system operated in a supra-system (Prachongchit, 1984), which includes the institution and the larger social system to which the institution belongs. It shows that both the external and internal environments have great and direct influence upon the direction of the professional development activities. In this model, the system attempts to transform inputs (in such forms as aims and resources) into desirable outputs in terms of efficient and effective programs and skilled administrators. The assessment and the feedback are drawn from, and in turn have an impact upon both, inputs and processes adopted. The process thus is a cyclical and continuous process.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented a review of the literature in the area of staff/professional development and related issues within the African context. Specifically, the chapter focused on, among others, (a) issues facing African universities and how they affect professional development; (b) perspectives on professional development — definitions, place of professional development in administrative theory, rationales, purposes, levels and forms of professional development, and challenges to professional development; and (c) a proposed theoretical framework for understanding and analyzing effective staff development initiatives and processes in universities.

The review demonstrates that professional development in the African context is unique owing to the myriad of environmental influences beyond the control of universities. Budgetary as well as sociopolitical demands on the institutions dictate the level, pace, and type of initiatives undertaken. Pertinent issues raised relate to the notion that there seems to be a disconnection between the basic requirements for effective staff

development in organizations such as universities, and the areas of individual and institutional needs analysis, planning, implementation, and evaluation.

The dependency theory, system approach, and neo-institutional models are suggested as guiding theoretical underpinnings to understanding the pertinent issues affecting and influencing staff development at Moi University.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

Generally, *research method* refers to the overall structure or plan of the research study. The research method for this study was designed to gain an understanding of administrator professional development as well as the perceptions of administrators regarding the outcomes of the administrator development programs in one Kenyan public university. As such the study method falls in the realm of phenomenology which has been described by Johnson and Christensen (2000) as the description of one or more individuals' consciousness and experiences of a phenomenon." They further contend that the purpose of phenomenological research is to obtain a view into research participant's life-worlds and to understand their personal meanings (what it means to them) constructed from their life experiences" (p. 315). Walters (1995) adds that phenomenologists believe that knowledge, and understanding are embedded in our everyday world... and that "truths and understanding of life can emerge from people's life experiences". It was therefore my belief that to understand administrator development as a phenomenon at Moi University, it was essential that administrators in this particular setting tell their stories with regard to PD. In this chapter I describe (a) the design, (b) data collection procedures, (c) data analysis, (d) trustworthiness, (e) pilot study, and (f) ethical considerations.

Research Design

Many methods have been used in phenomenological research. For this study, the design was essentially descriptive employing both qualitative and quantitative research

techniques to gather and analyze data. Borg and Gall (2003) distinguished between qualitative and quantitative descriptive studies. They reported that quantitative research is a type of investigation that measures the characteristics of a sample of a population on pre-specified variables, and qualitative research as a type of investigation that involves providing a detailed portrayal of one or more cases. Specifically, the study triangulated data through the use of questionnaire surveys, interviews, and documentary sources. The bulk of the data came from the questionnaire survey, while the interview and documentary information was used mainly to corroborate and augment the rest of the data. Simple statistics were used to report and discuss the data where appropriate. I therefore largely adopted a descriptive research approach.

According to Wiersma (2000), survey research has been useful for gathering descriptive information relating to experiences, opinions, attitudes, and behaviors, as well as for studying relationships. Gay (1989) explained that descriptive research involves collecting data in order to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study: "Descriptive study determines and reports the way things are" (p. 217). Gay (1989) further explains that "typically, descriptive studies are often concerned with the assessment of attitudes, opinions, demographic information, conditions, and procedures" (p. 218). Singleton and Straits (1999) added that a descriptive study seeks to describe the distribution within a specific population of certain characteristics, attitudes, or experiences and makes use of simple forms of analysis (p. 91). To obtain data for this type of study, questionnaire surveys, interviews, and observations are usually employed (Borg & Gall, 2003, 1996; Gay, 1989, p. 218). Singleton and Straits (1999) contended that the objective of a descriptive study is to describe some phenomenon. They also

referred to descriptive study as a fact-finding enterprise that focuses on relatively few dimensions of a well-defined entity and measures those dimensions systematically and precisely, usually with detailed numerical descriptions (p. 91).

Data Gathering

Lawler (1982) argued that the choice of approaches to data collection involves comparing the strengths and weaknesses of various methods within the context of a particular study. Three techniques—namely, questionnaire surveys, interviews, and analysis of university-printed documentary sources on professional development—were utilized to obtain information pertinent to the study. I felt as the researcher that triangulating data would enhance the validity of the research findings, especially because the topic had hardly been researched in Kenyan and African universities. There was thus very little background information to guide the inquiry. Among my considerations when making choices among possible techniques were reliability, sample size and selection, costs, variables to be explored, accessibility, ethical issues, richness of data, and time constraints.

The Participants

Target Population

According to Singleton and Straits (1999), *target population* denotes the entire group from which the researcher would like to gather his or her data. For this study the target population was all the nonteaching administrators at Moi University. Nonteaching administration at this university refer to all staff who provide professional and support services other than teaching. They include those serving in central administration—such as personnel, recruitment, council matters, support and administrative services; and the

academic division—such as student admission, examinations, senate matters, student services, faculty administration, finance division, planning, public relations, estates, transport, and security. The university attaches the label “administrators” to all those from the level of Administrative Assistant to the Chief Administrative Officer.

Consequently, all others, such as the technical, clerical and the maintenance staff are not included in this definition.

The survey population entailed all administrators from the level of Administrative Assistant to the Principal Administrative Officer from the two divisions of administration—Central Administration and the Academic Division. Specific sections surveyed are represented in figure 1. The two divisions were chosen because they represent the overwhelming majority of administrative staff at the university.

Questionnaire surveys were thus administered to the entire group—with the exception of two individuals. First, one academic administrator was included in the design. However, he could not participate in the study because of a national assignment. Second, two of the chief officers were exempted from the questionnaire part of the study because he was purposively sampled for an interview.

Sampling

Two different sampling techniques were used for the interview participants. All of the questionnaire respondents were asked whether they would be willing to participate in an interview related to the study (Appendix A). All of the participants were provided with two self-addressed envelopes. The first envelope was to be used to return the filled out questionnaire and the second, a consent form for interview participation (Appendix B). The rationale was that the questionnaires were to be anonymous while the consent form

had to contain a name and contact address for the participants. Following this process, 18 of the questionnaire respondents indicated a willingness to participate in an interview. As I was to interview only six, I employed a Random sampling technique—a process that would allow each respondent an equal chance or probability of being selected. Each participant was assigned a number. The numbers were then written on small pieces of paper, folded, placed in a jar, and shaken. An individual not related to the study and not known to any of the participants was asked to pick out six folded papers from the jar. The six individuals whose names had been drawn were then contacted and interviews set at the place and time of their own choice. These six did not include the four senior administrators who had been purposively sampled. Bailey (1982) explained that a purposive sampling is the strategy by which “the researcher uses his or her own judgment about which respondent to choose, and picks only those who best meet the purpose of the study” (p. 99). In other words, it involves a careful selection of cases that represent the most informed section on the subject of study. Other researchers have asserted that a purposeful sampling is not designed to achieve population representativeness but an in-depth understanding of selected individuals (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, 2003; Singleton & Straits, 1999, p. 158). Singleton and Straits, after examining the various uses of this strategy, suggested that the general strategy is to identify important sources of variation in the population and then to select a sample that reflects this variation.

My choice of officers was influenced by the fact that they were the major players in determining professional development issues of the university. For instance, they were active in formulation of policies, determining processes, and determining the finances to support the programs. This group, as Singleton and Straits (1999) suggested, presented a

major variation from the rest of the administrators. They were therefore deemed to be in the best position to offer informed responses. However, only one participant in this category accepted the request for an interview. The second participant provided documents that he stated contained what he was ready to discuss. The third declined altogether, and the fourth was away on a national assignment. I acknowledge that the data from this group were rather thin. However, useful information with regard to professional development was obtained from the one participant and the documents provided and were used in the findings and discussion.

Sources of Data

Development, Design, and Administration of Questionnaires

In developing the questionnaire, I adopted the stages outlined by De Vaus (1986).

He pointed out that a questionnaire should be a "product of the research problem, the theory, method of administration, and methods of data analysis" (p. 70).

Development and Design of the Questionnaire

De Vaus (1986) contended that in questionnaire development, four issues must be considered: (a) the selection of areas about which to question, (b) the construction of actual questions, (c) the evaluation of questions, and (d) the layout of the questionnaire.

Development of the questionnaire. To satisfy these criteria, a questionnaire was constructed whose features were guided by the purpose of the study and the review of related literature. An extensive review of the literature pertaining to professional development revealed a number of themes and facets that underscored the various dimensions that my study would examine. The studies I reviewed (though the majority were in faculty development) provided a number of issues, theories, and models that are

equally important in administrator development. I examined copies of Moi University's *Terms of Service* and government education reports. Several models found in the literature were also examined to provide a possible conceptual framework that would further guide the questionnaire development process. The notable studies in this regard included Ikonwe (1984), Pranchongchit (1984), Aidoo-Taylor (1986), and a study of administrative professional officers at the University of Alberta (1998). The issues frequently addressed included: forms of professional development, policies, objectives, internal and external influence of PD, strategies and implementation, needs and needs analysis, methods of delivery, and barriers.

Largely, the above issues, dimensions, and variables, as well as concepts drawn from the model proposed for this study in Chapter 2, guided the initial development of the questionnaire. The dimensions also provided the conceptual framework for this study. Ultimately, the questionnaire was structured around the broad areas of inquiry identified in the purpose of the study: (a) describing the demographics of the non-teaching administrators of the university, (b) exploring and describing the nature of staff participation forms and the characteristics of the professional development programs for administrators at Moi University, (c) exploring the rationales for professional development at the university, (d) exploring perceptions of administrators concerning professional development needs and preferred methods of PD, and (e) exploring the perceptions of administrators concerning the effectiveness of the professional development programs undertaken.

The initial draft was given to colleagues in the Department of Educational Policy Studies for feedback on language, clarity, biases, leading questions, and redundancy or

overlap in questions. Part of this process was done as a class exercise. After the comments were incorporated, copies of the second draft were given to two members of the academic staff in the Department of Adult and Higher Education of the University of Alberta who had recently completed a similar study for their university, and their suggestions were incorporated. The final version of the questionnaires consisted of 73 items divided into four parts and 11 sections. This version was later pilot-tested. Following the pilot study, further changes were incorporated. The final version of the survey is shown in Appendix C.

Design of questionnaire. To meet the purpose of the study and to answer specific questions raised for the study, the survey questionnaire was structured into four main parts and 11 sections as mentioned above. Part 1 presents questions pertaining to biographical information, forms of professional development, and frequency of PD initiatives. Part 2 comprises a set of questions that describe major characteristics of the PD initiatives. These include objectives, policies and procedures, and strategies and activities for implementation of professional development. Part 3 comprises a set of questions that examine the rationale for professional development at the university. Part 4 presents questions that examine the professional development needs of the administrator as well as the outcomes of the existing initiatives. This part has three subsections. The first sought to assess professional development needs using a list of skill areas provided; the second, to determine participants' preferences regarding methods of professional development delivery; and the third, to explore the administrator's perceptions on outcomes, factors that facilitate, and factors that impede professional development at the

university. The questionnaire also provided the opportunity for additional information that the respondents deemed important.

Permission and Administration of the Questionnaires

Permission. As policy at the time of conducting this research, the Kenya government required that anyone wishing to undertake research in the country seek clearance from the Ministry of Education. I sought clearance, which was granted on condition that the host institution and the district administration had no objection. I had discussions with both the head of the institution and the chief administrative officer about the purpose of my research and the need to ask all administrators to participate in my study. Approval was granted orally. I also notified the district administration, and permission was granted.

Administration of questionnaire. Following approval by the university, a list of all administrators who fitted the description for the study was obtained from the personnel division of the chief administrative officer's office. The list included all 62 administrators on the three campuses of the university, and they were sent a letter of invitation to participate in the research study (Appendix A). Fifty-four questionnaires were circulated because four administrators were on annual leave, two were on study leave, and two were to be purposively sampled for interviews and exempted from the questionnaire survey.

Because I did not have a permanent address or a personal telephone number, I established a contact person on each campus. These contact persons were to receive all mailed responses.

After establishing the location of each administrator from the personnel list, I personally distributed all of the questionnaires. I decided to distribute them personally because I felt that I needed to address concerns that had been raised by the contact persons and to clarify questionnaire procedures. Along with the questionnaire, I provided the participants with a letter of introduction, an interview sign-up sheet, and two prepaid and preaddressed envelopes. All of the envelopes were addressed to the contact person on each campus. As mentioned earlier, the interview sign-up sheet was to be mailed back separately from the questionnaire to protect anonymity.

Interviews

Part of the justification for using interviews is that a questionnaire consists of preconceived assumptions imposed on the subjects by the investigator (Pansegrau, 1983); in other words, respondents are denied the chance to express their independent opinions or use their terminology.

Two distinct sets of interviews were conducted. The first set involved six administrators drawn from the sample population who had responded to the questionnaire and who had expressed willingness to be interviewed. The interview questions (Appendix D) were partly generated from an initial analysis of the questionnaire responses. I did not rigidly follow the schedule because I allowed the participants to discuss issues that were important to them. In a number of instances I used the questions from the schedule as probes when the interviewees alluded to related issues. As mentioned earlier, the second set of interviews was supposed to involve four chief officers of the university who had been purposively sampled. All of the four were contacted for participation. One consented to participate without being recorded, one

chose to provide relevant documents, one declined, and one was unavailable due to prior national commitments.

As indicated above, all of the interviews were unstructured. The interviews lasted an average of 45 minutes. Those that involved participants drawn from the questionnaire respondents were recorded and transcribed, and the transcripts were verified by all of the participants. In the case of one administrator who had consented to participate but did not consent to the interview being recorded, I took notes instead.

Documentary Sources

Lawler, Nadler, and Cammann (1982) suggested that documents, records, and written material in the possession of the organization are the richest sources of unobtrusive data. Additionally, Aidoo-Taylor (1986) posited that documentary sources provide one with the language of the organization that makes meaning to the employees. Berg (1995) added that documents or archival data are non-reactive to the presence of investigators. Printed institutional records are also expected to provide factual information to be corroborated with the subjective responses obtained from interviews or questionnaires. Berg acknowledged that errors are inherent in the use of documents, but contended that this possibility should be recognized and can be controlled through data triangulation.

I first obtained permission to gain access to official university documents—such as minutes of the Staff Development Committee and files on training—that would include information on personnel who had undergone training. My initial assumption was that minutes from the Staff Development Committee would provide information related to staff development issues. The training office allowed me only to read the minutes in

their offices. No permission was granted to photocopy relevant sections, so I took notes, identifying key issues that would generate themes. I also obtained and examined non-confidential written documents from the university that had a direct bearing on professional development. These include copies of the new policy on staff training, the university calendar, *Printed Recurrent Estimates 1996/97-2000/01*, the *Memorandum of Agreement* between Moi University and the union, the *Terms of Service* documents for both middle level and senior academic and administrative staff, seminar proceedings, newsletters, annual reports, and speeches delivered by the vice-chancellor during major official university functions where major policy pronouncements are often made and communicated to the public and staff. Interview participants suggested most of the documents that were obtained for content analysis.

Pilot Study

Singleton and Straits (1999) warned that failure to conduct adequate pre-testing can result in a meaningless study. Accordingly, a pilot study was conducted with a sample of four Kenyan graduate students at the University of Alberta who were staff members of some of the public universities in Kenya. I felt that they were familiar with the context of my study and knew of constraints and professional development practices in their respective universities. They were also, in my view, in a position to know whether the terms used in the questionnaire conformed with what Aidoo-Taylor (1986) called the language of the organization that makes meaning to the employees.

The main purpose of the pilot study was to test the questionnaire and the interview questions to be used in the research—to identify problems in wording, ordering, and formatting.

The pilot study participants were requested to respond to all questions according to how they understood them. They were then asked to make suggestions or submit comments for improving the questionnaire. All four completed the questionnaires and returned them with comments. I had the opportunity to meet with each one to review the comments. Among the changes was the incorporation of the term "staff development" alongside "Professional development" as PD as term is not a common word in this particular setting.

Data Analysis

Content and statistical analyses were used to interpret the questionnaire, interview, and documentary data. Specifically, the following analyses were carried out: (a) summary statistics concerning the demographic characteristics of the respondents, as well as the respondents' overall perceptions of the various facets of professional development; (b) categorization of written responses from the open-ended items in the questionnaires; and (c) analysis of interview data along major themes identified from the questionnaire, as well as new or emerging themes.

The *Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS)* was used for statistical analysis. In these analyses, first, frequencies and percentage frequencies were calculated to construct demographic profiles for the respondents. Second, the analyses generated percentage frequency distributions of responses, standard deviations, and overall ranked order of means for the biographical characteristics and each facet of the study. Both the means score frequencies and the percentages (where appropriate) were used to compare administrators' perceptions of aspects of the professional development initiatives at the university. For purposes of comparing the different groups, responses for each category

were reported only when an arbitrarily chosen substantial difference of at least 0.75 existed between the means of two groups. Where percentages were used in reporting, an arbitrary margin difference of 25% was adopted as denoting a substantial difference.

The analyses were applied to the following variables: (a) the different administrative positions/levels, (b) the two administrative divisions, (c) gender, and (d) staff development participation.

The interview and documentary data were analyzed using a number of qualitative techniques. McMillan and Schumacher (1989) defined *qualitative data analysis* as a "systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing and interpreting to provide explanations of the single phenomenon of interest" (p. 414). These strategies alongside those outlined by Bogdan and Biklen (1982) and Guba and Lincoln (1985) were used. These include a systematic coding, categorization, or classification of data into major themes. Information obtained from documentary sources was also analyzed, and, similarly, the findings were compared with the information obtained from the interviews and questionnaires. A list containing the response from the optional part of the questionnaire was also generated, analyzed for content, and compared to the data from both the first part of the questionnaire and the interviews.

Trustworthiness

A number of measures were taken to ensure that the study was trustworthy. First, I ensured that my personal assumptions as the researcher do not influence the study through bracketing. Second, I adopted Lincoln and Guba's (1985) umbrella concept of *trustworthiness* which they contended encompassed four issues: (a) credibility—the results reflect the social world being studied, (b) dependability (reliability)—the findings

could be replicated with the same or similar participants and contexts,

(c) transferability—the findings are applicable in other similar situations, and

(d) confirmability—the outcomes mirror the social phenomenon rather than the personal perspectives of the researcher.

Bracketing

Bracketing was practised as a means of guarding against bias. Rembley (2003) contends that “phenomenology instructs us to allow the phenomenon to reveal itself in its fullness” (p. 1) free from our assumptions. Bracketing as a means of ensuring trustworthiness assumes that people can separate their personal knowledge from their experiences (Paley, 1998). According to Rembley (2003) bracketing means setting aside all our usual, “natural” assumptions about the phenomena. This means having to put aside our biases, prejudices, theories, philosophies, religions, even common sense, and accept the phenomenon for what it is. As such practicing bracketing enables one to objectively describe the phenomena under study (Hallet, 1995). Being a member of staff in the same institution, I endeavoured to not allow my experiences and familiarity influence my study. To ensure this was done, I suspended all my judgements and described the setting in detail as it was at the time and as presented to me by the participants. I pilot-tested my study instrument for clarity and for neutrality against bias. I also asked the respondents to verify the accuracy of my transcripts and subjected my data interpretation to member checks.

Credibility

To ensure credibility, I checked consistently for accuracy, sought verification, probed, and confirmed data/information from interview participants—adhering to a process to which Guba and Lincoln (1985) referred as “member checks.”

Owens (1982) suggested the use of “peer debriefing” or consultation to allow the researcher to “disengage from the setting and discuss progress of the work and the nature of experience with qualified peers who are interested” (p. 15). My consultations with peers started at the proposal formulation stage, continued through the preparation of research instruments, and continued throughout the data analysis stage. The proposal was discussed several times in my research class. A number of colleagues, including some from Kenya, were involved in commenting on my questionnaire. I met with my supervisor to discuss the progress of the research and emerging concerns, particularly in assessing the questionnaire for bias, leading questions, double-barreled questions, and ambiguity.

Triangulation of the data also enhanced credibility. Berg (1995) explained that by combining several methods, researchers obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements (p. 5). For the recorded data, care was taken to ensure accurate recording and extraction of meanings. The perceptions of a variety of people were solicited.

Dependability

With regard to dependability, a number of issues were addressed. Singleton and Straits (1999) stated that dependability or reliability is concerned with issues of stability

and consistency. Two important questions are, "Is the operational definition measuring something consistently and dependably?" and "Do repeated applications of the operational definition under similar condition yield consistent results?" (Borg & Gall, 2003; Singleton & Straits, 1999). First, a dependable instrument for data gathering, especially the questionnaires, was developed. The instruments' dependability was ensured through a series of steps taken in its development and administration. Wide input into the development and improvement of the instrument was incorporated. The instrument was also piloted with respondents familiar with the setting to streamline the wording, ordering, formatting, and issues being measured.

Also, as the researcher, I have outlined all of the methods and procedures taken at all levels. These steps and procedures should be helpful if there were need to replicate the study. But for ethical reasons all other documentation, especially as it relates to recorded interviews, journals and notes are confidential.

Transferability

Because the research involved one rural university in Kenya, it was not my intention to generalize the findings to all universities in Kenya or elsewhere. On the contrary, it was intended, through the use of the entire administrative staff population to "maximize the range of information collected and to provide the most plausible conditions for theory building" (Le Compte & Goetz, 1982). With respect to transferability, Le Compte and Goetz (1982) suggested that purposive sampling and "thick description" be used. I have provided a detailed description of the contexts, the activities involved, and the sampling process. Descriptions include areas such as the university's organizational and administrative structure (Figure 1), the setting, nature of

interaction with its environment, and the university system in Kenya. This was done to help the readers to determine the degree to which the study's particular contexts parallel their environments and render my findings relevant.

Confirmability

To ensure confirmability, Guba and Lincoln (1981) recommended that researchers utilize triangulation. They added that the process of triangulation permits "multiple value perspectives to emerge from the same context or events" (p. 257). These multiple value perspectives then "become warp and weft of the context fabric" that the "researcher uncovers in the course of checking his/her facts" (p. 257). Triangulation thus contributes to credibility, dependability, and confirmability.

Assumptions

This study is based on the following assumptions:

- 1 The university engages in both formal and informal professional development activities for non-academic administrators and has established mechanisms to ensure their implementation.
- 2 The information sought for the study could adequately be obtained through both the questionnaire and interviews.
- 3 The respondents would understand and be sincere in their responses to both the interview questions and the questionnaires.
- 4 Senior members of staff selected for the interview could best provide the required information from the senior management perspective.

Limitations

This study had inherent limitations because of its design. Among them are the following:

1. The findings were limited to responses provided on the questionnaires, interviews from a total of 7 participants, and the availability of relevant documents from the institution.
2. My biases and/or weaknesses as a researcher and interviewer and staff member of Moi University could place a limitation on data collection in interviews.
3. There were no alternate participants among the senior management for those identified who failed to participate.
4. Data only limited to PD practices up to the period in which the study was conducted. Any new developments that occurred since data collection was completed or that may occur in the future will not be reflected in this study.

Ethical Considerations

The three broad areas of ethical concern regarding social science research were addressed: the ethics of data collection and analysis, the ethics of treatment of participants, and the ethics of responsibility to the society.

First, in terms of data collection and analysis, Singleton and Straits (1999) contended that,

The norms of science tacitly require researchers to be unremittingly honest in their observations and analysis; to be tolerant, questioning, and be willing to admit error, and to place the pursuit of knowledge and understanding above personal gain or the promotion of a particular philosophy or ideology. (p. 513)

They further indicated that for a researcher, "the highest or most fundamental ethical dictum is honesty and accuracy" (p. 513). I did my best to carry out the research carefully and honestly at the design stage, with procedures required at each stage, and at each setting while collecting data, as well as in the analysis and reporting.

Second, every effort was made to guard participants against potential harm, lack of informed consent, deception, and invasion of privacy. The participants' freedom of choice was guaranteed. In this regard, the participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, and they were given enough information about the research to enable them to make informed decisions as to whether they should participate or not. Issues such as the purpose and procedures of the research were discussed before written consent was solicited from the participants. Additionally, the participants were informed that one way of exercising their right was not to respond to the questionnaire at all.

The right to privacy of the participants was honored in the study. Singleton and Straits (1999) defined privacy as the individual's right to decide when, where, to whom, and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs, and behavior will be revealed.

Accordingly, personal information was safeguarded, and informants' identities will remain anonymous.

On instances in which anonymity was difficult to maintain, permission was sought. In this regard since it was not possible to completely mask the identity of the university, I obtained permission from the institution use the actual name. This was done at the same time as the permission was sought to conduct the research. Permission was granted though verbally.

The third broad area of ethical concern is the researcher's responsibility to the public. Singleton and Straits (1999) stated that researchers have an obligation to assess the possible uses of findings by promoting beneficial applications and speaking against harmful or destructive applications. The nature of the study was such that there would be no harm to the community or the institution. Recommendations from the study in fact facilitate a more effective set of programs for PD at the University.

Also, in further fulfillment of this ethical concern, permission to conduct research in the specified location was sought through the appropriate administrative channels in Kenya. Government regulations in Kenya require that a permit be obtained from the Office of the President before any kind of research is conducted in the country. Finally, I also adhered to all ethical guidelines set by the General Faculties Council of the University of Alberta, and the Ethics Review Committee of the Department of Educational Policy Studies examined the research proposal.

CHAPTER 4

DEMOGRAPHICS AND RETURN RATE

In this chapter, first, I present the questionnaire return rate. Second, I present the personal and professional characteristics of all of the questionnaire respondents. A brief profile is also provided for the seven respondents who were interviewed. The profiles consist of personal, educational, and professional characteristics of both categories of respondents.

The respondents are described in terms of age, gender, position level, division within the university administration, educational background, administrative work experience, staff development participation, and involvement with professional organizations. Implications of these data in relation to PD at Moi University are discussed in Chapter 6.

Response Rate and Frequencies

The survey population consisted of all non-teaching administrators of the university. According to records obtained from the personnel section at the time of the study, 62 administrators fitted that description. The target population ranged from the position of Administrative Assistant, which was the lowest entry point into administration, to the Chief Academic Officer and the Chief Administrative Officer—the two highest positions in the central administration hierarchy. The Chief Administrative Officer and the Chief Academic Officer were exempted from responding to the questionnaire because they had been targeted for interview. Hence the entire target survey population was revised down to 60. Further, four of the administrators were away

for their annual leave, and two were on study leave. Consequently, 54 questionnaires were circulated. A total of 46 surveys were returned, reflecting a return rate of 85%. A summary of the return rate frequencies is reported in Table 2. Given that questionnaire surveys tend to have low response rates (Fink & Kosecoff, 1985), this high percentage of returns provides a reliable perspective and information for senior management of the university and other planners in similar circumstances.

Table 2

Frequency and Percentage Distribution Reflecting the Overall Rate of Return

Total number of administrators	Away/exempted	Circulated	Not returned	Returned	Percentage
62	8	54	8	46	85%*

*Percentages rounded

Administrative Positions

The university has created six distinct position levels within its administrative structure. These levels represent career promotion levels. They are Chief Administrative Officer, Chief Academic Officer, Principal Administrative Officer (PAO), Senior Administrative Officer (SAO), Administrative Officer (AO), Senior Administrative Assistant (SAA), and Administrative Assistant (AA).

Table 3 represents the percentages of the questionnaires returned by each administrative position. The AAs had the highest return (30%), and the SAOs had the lowest (13%).

Table 3

Percentages of questionnaires returned by Administrative Positions

Established administrative positions	Percentage* N = 46
Principal Administrative Officer (PAO)	17
Senior Administrative Officer (SAO)	13
Administrative Officer (AO)	24
Senior Administrative Assistant (SAA)	15
Administrative Assistant (AA)	30

* Percentages rounded

The data indicate that the PAO and SAO accounted for a combined total of about 30% of the respondents, and the administrators at the lower levels accounted for a combined total of about 70% of the questionnaires returned. It is important to note that significantly higher proportions of AOs and AAs were in the final pool of completed questionnaires than the other administrative levels.

Table 4 presents the frequency and percentage distributions of respondents per administrative level. The percentages of return questionnaires ranged between 60% and 92%, with the AOs accounting for the highest percentages of return and the SAOs the lowest.

Additional Comments

Although the questionnaire offered a chance to the respondents to make additional comments for most of the items on the questionnaire, the respondents offered none.

However, 31 (67%) of the participants responded to the open-ended questions at the end

of the questionnaire. In these comments the participants indicated that they strongly felt that staff development was one of the key areas in which the organization should invest and that it "was long overdue".

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages at Each Administrative Level

Position level in administration	Total number	Number who responded	Response rate for each level (%)*
Principal Administrative Officer	11	8	73
Senior Administrative Officer	10	6	60
Administrative Officer	12	11	92
Senior Administrative Assistant	10	7	70
Administrative Assistant	17	14	82
TOTAL	62	46	

*Percentages rounded

Personal Characteristics and Background Information

Table 5 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Noteworthy features in those demographics are highlighted in the section that follows.

Age

Table 6 summarizes the age distribution of participants in four age groups. The data indicate that 83% of administrators were between the ages of 31 and 50, and approximately 7% were 51 years or over.

Table 5

Summary of Administrator Characteristics in Relation to Selected Variables

Variable	PAO N=8	%	SAO N=6	%	AO N=11	%	SAA N=7	%	AA N=14	%	Total	Overall %
Age												
51 or older	2	25			1	9.1					3	6.5
41-50	6	75	5	83.3	7	63.3	2	28.6			20	43.5
31-40			1	16.7	3	27.3	5	71.4	9	64.3	18	39.1
-30 or younger									5	35.7	5	10.9
Gender												
M	6	75	4	66.7	7	63.6	6	85.7	11	78.6	34	74
F	2	25	2	33.3	4	36.4	1	14.3	3	21.4	12	26
Admin. Experience												
15 and over												
11-15	5	62.5	1	16.7	4	36.4			1	7.	11	24
6-10	3	37.5	2	33.3	7	63.6	7	100	1	7	20	43.4
1-5			3	50					12	86	15	32.6
Participation in PD												
Y	6	75	2	33.3	5	45.5	4	57.1	2	14.3	19	41.3
N	2	25	4	66.7	6	54.5	3	42.9	12	85.7	27	58.7
Qualifications												
PhD.	2	25					1	14.3			3	6.5
Masters	6	75	4	66.7	4	36.4	4	57.1	1	7.1	19	41.4
Undergraduate			2	33.3	7	63.6	1	14.3	11	78.6	21	45.7
Certificate							1	14.3	1	7.1	2	3.3
Other									1	7.1	1	2.1

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age bracket	<i>F</i> (<i>n</i> =46)	Percentage*
30 or younger	5	11
31 – 40	18	39
41 – 50	20	43
51 or older	3	7

*Percentages rounded

In addition, the data indicate that 50% of all administrators who responded were over 41 years or older. Five of the 14 AAs — being the lowest ranked — were younger than 30 years.

Gender

Table 7 cross-tabulates response frequencies by gender. The male to female ratio was approximately 3:1.

Table 7

Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	<i>f</i>	Percentage*
Male	34	74
Female	12	26

*Percentages rounded

Further, as Table 5 indicates at the senior level, only 2 (25%) of the PAOs were female, and only 2 (33%) of the 6 SAOs were female. When the two top administrative levels are combined, it transpires that of the 14 senior administrative officers who responded, only 4 (29%) were female. At the lower levels, 21% of the AAs and 14% of the SAAs were female. The data then indicate a major underrepresentation of females in administration at all levels.

Administrative Divisions

In terms of administrative structure, the institution operates a two-tier system; namely, the "Central Administration" and the "Academic Division" (see Figure 1). With regards to response rates for the two administrative divisions, the data show an almost equal distribution (Table 8). This reflects a general interest in staff development initiatives across all levels and within both divisions of the administration.

Table 8

*Distribution of Respondents by Administrative Divisions
of the University*

Division	<i>f</i>	Percentage*
Academic	22	48
Administrative	21	46
Not specified	3	7

*Percentages rounded

Educational Level/Background

Table 9 presents the educational levels reported by administrators. The data indicate that non-academic administrators in the university were on the whole well educated, with over 90% having completed an undergraduate or graduate degree. Of special significance was the fact that just under 50% of the respondents had completed graduate degrees.

Cross tabulation by position level (Table 5) shows that all responding PAOs had at least a master's degree, whereas four out of six responding SAOs had completed at least a graduate degree. In large measure, the level of education related directly to position and, to a large extent, age—those who occupied higher positions both were over 40 and had graduate degrees.

Table 9

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Educational Qualifications

Educational level	<i>f</i>	Percentage*
Ph.D.	3	7
Master's degree	19	41
Undergraduate degree	21	46
College/technical institute certificate/ professional certificate, high school certificate	2	3
Other	1	2

*Percentages rounded

Work Experience

The university was established in 1984 and was only 16 years old at the time of the study. Tables 10 and 11 summarize the range of administrative work experience for the administrators both at the university and elsewhere.

Table 10

*Distribution of Respondents by Administrative Work Experience
in Other Organizations*

Prior experience (n=46)	<i>f</i>	Percentage*
Yes	29	63
No	17	37

*Percentages rounded

Table 11

Years of Administrative Experience

Organization	Range	Mean
This university	1 - 15 years	7.8
Another university	0 - 12 years	0.6
Another organization/sector	0 - 15 years	3.6

Table 10 indicates that of the 46 respondents, 17 started their career in administration at Moi University. Furthermore, the questionnaire revealed that the majority of those who were hired from outside the university system (at all levels) came from the school and college systems, where they were principals, head-teachers, education officers, or teachers.

Table 11 shows that the range of work experience for administrators at Moi University ranges from 1 to 15 years. However, when the entire work experience is taken into consideration (including administrative experience in other organizations and sectors), the years of experience range between 1 and 30 years.

Further examination of the data (Table 5) showed that 12 of the 14 (86%) AAs had accumulated only 1 to 5 years of administrative experience at Moi University. All seven SAAs had been at Moi University 6 to 10 years, whereas five of the eight PAOs had between 11 and 15 years of experience at Moi University. One interesting finding was that the average university experience for 3 of the six SAOs was 1 to 5 years.

Overall, the data seem to suggest that there exists an internal upward movement of administrators over time. However, the low range of work experience at the university for the SAOs could suggest some movement to Moi University from other universities or organizations. One interviewee claimed that morale at the middle and junior levels was very low, in part because the administrators at the senior level had been recruited from outside the university. He further stated that although he and his colleagues were keen on developing themselves professionally, their chances of moving upward were low because the upper-level positions would be filled from outside.

Professional Development Activities

Table 12 indicates that only 15% of these administrators reported being involved in professional development activities.

Table 12

Respondents Currently Pursuing Professional Development Activities

Pursing PD activities	<i>F</i> (<i>n</i> =46)	Percentage*
Yes	7	15
No	39	85

*Percentages rounded

Professional Development Participation

Table 13 shows that 59% of administrators had since joining the university not participated in any formal PD initiatives. Of the 41% who had participated, records from the Training Office and Staff Development Committee files revealed that many had pursued graduate courses outside the country or specialized certificate courses at the East and Southern Africa Management Institute (ESAMI).

Table 13

Participation in Formal PD Initiatives Since Joining the University

Participated in formal PD activities	<i>F</i> (<i>n</i> =46)	Percentage*
Yes	19	41
No	27	59

*Percentages rounded

In general (see Table 5), it appears that rate of participation in formal professional development is related somewhat to administrative position and to length of tenure at Moi University: Three quarters of PAOs had participated in formal development initiatives while at the university, but only one in seven AAs had done so.

Tables 14 and 15 indicate that a majority (59%) of the respondents had not been accorded any study leave for PD activities. Of the 19 who participated, 14% had been granted less than 2 years of study leave period.

Table 14

Study Leaves for Purposes of Professional Development

Study leave granted	<i>f</i> (<i>n</i> =46)	%
Yes	19	41
No	27	59

*Percentages rounded

Table 15

Length of Study Leave for Professional Development

Length of study leave	<i>f</i>	Percentage*
1 month - < 1 yr.	8	42
1 - < 2 years	6	32
2 - < 4 years	3	16
4 - < 5 years	2	11
Total	19	100

*Percentages rounded

Professional Organizations

Table 16 indicates that few administrators at Moi University belonged to professional organizations. This, according to one interview respondent, is a result of "the failure by the administration to expose them to what is available in the country." A number of administrators, this respondent lamented, "do not know which organizations are open for them to join, nor the procedure of joining, or the benefits of joining one."

Table 16

Membership in Professional Organizations

Membership	f	Percentage*
Yes	11	24
No	35	76

*Percentages rounded

Summary and Discussion

This chapter reviewed the various personal and professional characteristics of the administrators at the university. A number of key variables were quantified to provide an overall perspective as to who a typical administrator at the university is. The interview respondents' biographical data were also analyzed to further provide perspective. The implications of these data with regard to PD are discussed in Chapter 6.

Of the seven randomly sampled interview respondents, six (85%) were male and one was female. All but two were above the age of 40, and all had worked with the university for over 10 years. In terms of academic qualification, three had attained a PhD

degree, two a master's, one an undergraduate, and one a certificate. Two worked within the academic division, and the remaining five were in central administration. In terms of participation in formal professional development, all but one had participated.

The high rate of return probably reflects the high level of interest and concern that the administrators had for their professional development, and its importance to the university. It can also be attributed to the method of questionnaire administration and the follow-up strategies used. As indicated in Chapter 3, I delivered the questionnaires personally to all of the respondents and discussed the project. The designation of a contact person, who was known to the majority of the respondents on each campus, also played a crucial role.

Records from the personnel office indicated that all positions from the level of Senior Administrative Officer and higher require that an incumbent have at least a graduate degree or a first degree, with several years of relevant experience. The entry point for Administrative Assistant, which is the lowest entry level to university administration, currently is an undergraduate degree. The findings indicate that most incumbents at all levels met their academic or work experience requirements.

The findings indicate that, in general, a typical administrator at this university was between the ages of 31 and 50, well educated, with most having a university undergraduate or graduate degree. Except for most Administrative Assistants, they were likely to have worked with the university for at least 10 years or had had relevant administrative experience in other organizations or sectors. Most of those who had joined the university administration would likely have come from the school system, and most

would not have belonged to any professional organization. Some 74% of the administrators were men.

CHAPTER 5

THE CHARACTERISTICS, OUTCOMES, AND BARRIERS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

Introduction

The previous chapter described the demographic characteristics of the study respondents. In this chapter I present the findings in five parts. In the first part I address the second purpose of the study and describe the forms and characteristics of the professional development activities at Moi University. Specifically, perceptions on the following areas are presented: types of program activities, objectives, policies and procedures that guide the PD activities, strategies, and activities involved. In the second part I present the findings for the third purpose of the study. The various rationales for PD practices at the university are presented. Specifically, administrators' wide-ranging rationales for PD, the rationale regarding senior management, and organizational inputs are explored. The third part of the chapter presents the study findings related to the fourth purpose, specifically, the perceived administrator development needs and administrators' preferred methods for professional development delivery. Issues explored include skills perceived to be crucial to present roles, skills requiring high need of development, and methods preferred by administrators for PD. The fourth part, related to the fifth purpose of the study, explores the outcomes, strengths, and barriers to PD activities. The fifth and last part is an analysis of the responses to the questionnaire items based on the different demographic variables.

In each part, I present quantitative data first and then data from the interviews, the open-ended questionnaire items, and documentary sources.

Characteristics of Staff Development Programs

Types of Professional Development Activities

To explore the types or forms of staff development initiatives that the university employed with regard to the administrative staff, the questionnaire respondents were asked to list the types or forms of professional development initiatives in which they had been involved, as well as the frequency of involvement.

Table 17 summarizes the forms/type of professional activities and the frequency with which each was cited. As reported in Table 13, only 19 of the 46 respondents reported having participated in formal professional development activities. The data here are thus based on the responses of these 19 administrative personnel. *Frequency* in the table refers to the number of times that each type was reported as a form of professional development used at the university. The frequency is calculated as a percentage of those who had reported participating (19).

In the table there appear to be three distinct levels that describe the types or forms of PD that are used at the university. The first level, signifying the *most frequently* used, was seminars, workshops and conferences. Of the 19 respondents who had participated in PD, 14 (74%) had attended seminars, workshops, or conferences. Further, information from both the open-ended questionnaire items and the interviews indicated that most of the seminars/workshops were organized around administrative or management issues that were urgent at the time, and most were funded through projects or by donor agencies.

Table 17

Forms/Types of Professional and Staff Development Used at the University and Their Frequency

Form or type of SD/PD activity attended	No of times mentioned	Percentage
Seminars, workshops and conferences	14	74
Further education (Under and Graduate degrees)	10	53
Short courses (Diploma, Certificate courses)	9	47
Involvement in projects	5	26
Committees and associated workshops	5	26
In-house training	4	21
Educational tours	3	16
Acting as resource persons	3	16
Job rotation	2	11
Management Exposure Program for senior Admin.	1	5
Attending lectures or talks	1	5

Note: n=19; percentages do not total 100%, nor do frequencies total 19, because the participants could provide more than one response. Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

The second level involved further education and short courses. Further education, as a form of professional development, was cited by 10 (53%) of the respondents, and 9 (47%) cited short courses. Records from the Personnel Office indicated, moreover, that between 1993 and 1999, as many as 13 out of the 58 administrators who participated in the study obtained a diploma, masters or doctorate degrees in different administrative fields from overseas or local universities. Virtually all of these programs were also funded through university linkages and donor agencies.

Regarding the short courses, the information obtained from both the Personnel and the Training Office indicated that these courses were geared towards specific areas in university management, and were offered from recognized institutes in Kenya and/or within East Africa. The majority (seven) of 37 (see appendix E) who attended certificate courses had been at the Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute (ESAMI) or the Kenya Institute of Management (KIM), and a small number (three) at different institutions in Britain. The third level includes the eight forms of PD cited least by the respondents. Specifically, There were eight forms of PD, and involved from one to five of the 19 respondents. Appendix E) presents a summary of PD activities that administrators and faculty have been involved in between 1994-1999 under the World Bank and MHO linkages.

The interviewees were asked to talk about the types of PD activities in which they had participated since they joined the university. They made a distinction between those initiatives that the university had instituted and those that were instituted by other organizations. They agreed that there were more seminar types of PD activities organized outside the university with the help of a foreign agency and attended by university staff than university-based and supported initiatives. Table 18 is a summary of the responses. The data support the findings from the questionnaire. The two sources—interviews and questionnaire—achieved the same ranking in terms of the most frequently used forms of PD. Both reflected the three levels of frequency; namely, seminars, workshops, and conferences (14 of the 19 questionnaire respondents and six of the seven interviewees), “further education” and “short courses” (10 and 9, respectively, of the questionnaire respondents, and mentioned by four of the seven interviewees); and the third levels could

be clustered around all forms, whose frequency was 5 or fewer questionnaire respondents, and mentioned by three or fewer of the interviewees.

Table 18

Types of PD and Frequencies for Interview Respondents

PD activity	Interview respondents							f N=7
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
Seminars/workshops/conferences	•	•		•	•	•	•	6
Further education	•	•			•	•		4
Short courses	•	•		•	•			4
Committee work	•		•	•				3
Project management involvement	•	•						2
Job rotation			•			•		2
Management exposure program	•						•	2
Acting as resource persons	•			•				2

The majority of the interviewees agreed that seminars, workshops, and conferences were the most commonly used form of PD, though mostly limited to the administrators in higher positions. They indicated that although other administrators in the lower levels had participated, their participation had been more as a response to specific issues in administration affecting them. The interviewees further contended that other forms of PD such as further education and short courses were popular because administrators were keen on improving their education as well as their skills through taking short courses.

A number of conflicting issues arose with regard to committee involvement as a form of PD. On the one hand, two of the interview respondents contended that committee involvement offered them opportunities in the early part of their career to develop their writing, reporting, and organizational skills. One of them explained that these skills had become sufficiently important that a workshop on writing skills and committee management was offered to administrative staff. On the other hand, three respondents did not view committee work as a core role for administrators, and therefore it could not be regarded as a PD initiative. As a matter of fact, they contended it as a demeaning service that reduced their administrative worth. They stated this aspect as a "failure by the management to allow them to exercise their administrative skills and knowledge." One respondent remarked:

Again, if you look at the committees, most of them are Senate Committees, and the administrators that are there basically form the secretariat. Even though they are trained administrators, they don't get the opportunity to utilize the training they have had. First of all, they are not members of these committees; they are just doing secretarial work. . . . So the university needs to recognize skills that others have already acquired and allow them to utilize them.

Although only two interview participants and a single questionnaire respondent referred to the Management Exposure Program (MEP) as a specific form of PD, the personnel records indicated that a sizable majority of senior administrative and management staff had participated in the program over the last three years. The MEP program involved members of the university's senior management traveling to overseas universities to acquaint themselves with other university management models. Again, the program was project/donor funded.

It was also interesting to note that a number of documents in the files of the Staff Development Committee identified several types of staff development that the university

had used over the years and intended to use in the future. Among those cited as having been used in the past and not mentioned by either interview or questionnaire participants were on-the-job training and induction/orientation.

PD Activities for Administrators

The participants were also asked to indicate how often formal professional development initiatives had been available to them. Both the interview and the questionnaire participants indicated a clear lack of sustained, coordinated, and continuous professional development efforts. They reported that the majority of professional development initiatives had operated in an ad hoc and sporadic manner. All seven interview participants had been with the university for at least 10 years, but only two had attended more than four workshops/seminars. One respondent had this to say regarding the frequency of professional development initiatives:

But, if I recall, in all the 12 years in this university, I have attended only four in-house workshops and seminars. . . . So yes, only four in 12 years. But I have been lucky to attend one or two other workshops outside the university organized by other organizations and using my own initiative to get there.

Another respondent remarked:

Between 1988 and 1991 I attended two workshops, one in Kericho and the other in Lake Bogoria. These were the only two that I attended meant for administrators. Then in September of 1991 I went to the University of . . . to pursue a PhD in educational administration. Since coming back in 1995, I have organized two seminars and participated in a Management Exposure Program for executive administrators. So, you see, that's about four seminars and a graduate program since 1988.

The questionnaire survey paints an even grimmer picture in terms of frequency of professional development initiatives. When asked to indicate how many times they had participated in staff development activities, 47% registered *not applicable* (N/A). The

remaining 53% provided a wide range of responses. Of the 19 respondents who had participated, two indicated having participated five times, 10 reported four times or less, and 7 did not indicate a numerical value but instead used statements such as "very rare," "occasionally," "not on a regular basis," "ad hoc basis," "sometimes once a year," "several times," "consecutive years to finish my M. Phil program," and "not much."

Venue and Accessibility

Paddock (1997) contended that a training program, no matter how well designed and administered, loses effectiveness if it is not accessible to those who need it. A large cross section of my participants claimed that most initiatives were accessible to only a few, especially to those at the higher levels of administrative positions.

According to the respondents, about five seminars and workshops that had been organized by the university were held away from the university. Three of the interview respondents claimed that since the PD activities were held off campus, participation was limited because only a few, often senior-level, administrators attended. This arrangement had inculcated no real desire in the hearts of administrators in the lower ranks to attend seminars — as it was not always available to them. The administrators therefore saw the seminar venue as an important factor influencing the feelings, attitudes, and perceptions about professional development.

A contrasting view, reflected in both interviews and questionnaire data, relates to the desire of many administrators to pursue higher education in foreign institutions. The respondents acknowledged that the majority of administrators would like to pursue their graduate studies overseas. As a matter of fact, six of the seven interviewees had done their graduate work in foreign institutions. Further, records in the personnel office

supported this view in that all of the 13 administrators who pursued further education between 1993 and 1998 had done so overseas.

Summary

The university had employed a number of professional development initiatives in a somewhat sporadic and inconsistent manner, the majority of which had been seminars, workshops, and conferences, as well as further education. Because the majority of the initiatives were donor or project funded, the frequency of the initiatives apparently related directly to the availability of donor funding. The frequency of participation also appeared to be influenced by position in the organization and venue, in that respondents saw venues outside the university as hindering the lower cadre of administrators and favouring the senior administrators. These findings as discussed in Chapter 6 parallel findings from other studies.

Professional Development Objectives

This section presents the perceptions regarding the professional development objectives, as well as the degree of awareness of the objectives among the administrators. To achieve this purpose, the respondents were asked to rate eight objectives found in the literature as to the degree to which they were true of Moi University.

Table 19 presents the means, percentages, and rank order for all the responses. The data indicate that three objectives were somewhat perceived to apply to Moi University. Specifically, the data indicated that the respondents somewhat perceived that the *"staff development initiatives at this university ...address the needs of the individual"* (mean = 3.3) On this item, 50% of respondents (pooled) strongly agreed or agreed, compared to 28% who disagreed or strongly disagreed. Similarly, the respondents, were

Table 19

Professional Development Objectives

Items (n = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%	%			
1. The PD activities at this university are to address the needs of the individual.	4.3		23.9		15.2		39.1		10.9		6.5		3.30	U
2. The PD activities at this university are to address the requirements of the institution.	8.7		28.3		4.3		37.0		15.2		6.5		3.23	U
3. The activities that constitute PD are clear to me.	8.7		30.4		8.7		43.5		6.5		2.2		3.09	U
4. The aims of PD of this university are clear to me.	13.0		34.8		8.7		37.0		4.3		2.2		2.84	U
4. The role of the university in the implementation of PD is clear to me.	15.2		37.0		8.7		32.6		4.3		2.2		2.73	U
5. The university's definition of PD is clear to me.	21.7		28.3		10.9		37.0		2.2		-		2.70	U
6. The expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the PD efforts are clear to me.	15.2		37.0		19.6		21.7		2.2		4.3		2.57	U
7. The objectives of the PD of this university keep changing to meet the changing requirements of the university.	15.2		37.0		15.2		13.0		4.3		15.2		2.46	U

U = Undecided

somewhat of the opinion that the *"staff development initiatives at this university address the requirements of the institution."* Again, a combined total of 52% of the participants strongly agreed or agreed to the objective, compared with a combined total of 32% who disagreed or strongly disagreed. The number of respondents who indicated that they were *"aware and clear of what constituted the activities of professional development"*. Fifty percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that activities were clear, whereas 39% either strongly disagreed or disagreed.

Ideally, based on the above statistics and ranking, both the individual and institutional developments were perceived to be strategic components of PD by small majorities of respondents. However, the interview respondents indicated that the focus on *"institutional development"* rarely applied because individual development was the main focus for administrators.

Two items exhibited relatively low mean scores, indicating that there was more disagreement than agreement on these matters with a significant number undecided. The first related to *"expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the staff/professional development efforts of the university"* (MS = 2.6); the second (MS = 2.5), to the perception that *"the objectives of staff/professional development programs of the university keep changing to meet the changing requirements of the university"*. The above ratings indicated more disagreement than agreement with these statements with regard to the university's PD practices. Both were reflected in the comments from the interview respondents in which they viewed the university as not providing them with a free hand to participate in implementing new skills, nor involving them in decision making regarding professional development, resulting in their often

being unsure of their role in professional development decisions and practices. Also, with regard to the responses on the changing needs of the university, the relatively low mean scores supported the interview respondents' notion that the university was unresponsive to changing needs and trends in their staff development initiatives.

When asked to talk about objectives or why they thought the professional development initiatives were important, the respondents gave varied responses. For instance, the initiatives sponsored by the donor project funded by the Netherlands government (MHO), according to one respondent, were specifically offered to senior administrative and management staff with the aim of sensitizing them to the various managerial procedures used in foreign universities. They were also intended to expose them to the latest managerial issues in higher education, with a view to adopting or transferring whatever was relevant to this university. One participant who was involved in organizing some of the initiatives remarked:

We have what we call "Management Exposure Program" for university management. [This is] basically to expose and sensitize senior administration and management regarding university management trends in other countries. From this project there were six of our senior administrators who visited universities in the Netherlands, USA, Canada, and Britain. . . . We have also had a number of workshops on management training and issues related to efficiency and effectiveness of administrative services for the same group of administrators under the same program.

Some of the phrases used by different respondents to describe perceived objectives or aims of professional development at the university included *"to expose management to new trends," "to function with new technologies," "to motivate staff," "to be able to cope with the changes in the university," "to prepare us to move ahead in our careers," "to serve our students better," "to acquire further education," and "to develop ourselves since the university does not."*

All of the above could be thematically fitted into the institutional goals spelled out in the Moi University policy document (MU, 1999). This document outlines six aims and objectives for staff training and development, namely:

1. to make staff knowledgeable about the university by providing them with information about the mission, vision, policies, structure, rules, and operational activities;
2. to improve the performance of the university by facilitating the staff members' acquisition of professional and technical knowledge and skills in their areas of responsibility;
3. to assist each employee in gaining competence and skills in preparation for a more responsible position;
4. to ensure the availability of sufficiently trained manpower to cope with the changing needs of the university;
5. to develop and enhance supervisory and managerial capacities through modern management training programs to promote optimum utilization of the university human and material resources; and
6. to facilitate effective communication.

The training policy document explicitly stated that "training aimed solely at meeting individual desires to attain higher academic qualification will not be encouraged" (p. 2). However, an emerging issue discussed by all of the interview respondents suggested that a sizable number of administrators may have trained for higher academic qualification based on the desire to meet their own needs in a specific academic area. The following comment by an interviewee supports this possibility:

As a matter of fact, there has been no initiative on the part of the university that has seen that I can train in this area for the development of my skills to serve the university in any particular field. . . . But on my part I know I have trained. I joined the university when I had a first degree. I got my second degree, and now I am going to get my third soon [PhD] in the area of . . . , and all that was out of my own initiative. They did not plan to develop me in any field.

Another had this to say:

There are a few people who have gone on training in areas that are specific to the university administration. But the majority of the people have just gone to pursue their own interests.

The feeling seems to have stemmed from the fact that the university does not take a leadership role in providing for administrator training or development needs. The above remarks support the numerical findings presented later (Table 22) that administrators perceive themselves as having to rely on their own initiatives and, therefore, are inclined to undergo training in areas of their own desire. Institutional interests thus become secondary.

Further, interviewees indicated that often the administrative staff were desperate to undergo training and often took up whatever opportunity came their way, regardless of their desire or relevance to their roles at the time. The idea of one's career interest or academic line was often secondary whenever an opportunity availed itself. That was why, as one explained, *"Everyone in administration wants to go for Human Resources Management because it is easy to obtain admission."* The personnel records further indicate that among the 28 administrators who had been trained under the World Bank and the MHO projects, 15 (54%) were listed as having pursued training in HRM and Institutional Management at either the master's or the certificate level.

Policies and Procedures

One part of the survey asked respondents to indicate the degree to which they were aware of, or agreed with, the procedures or policies that were in place for professional development initiatives. The results are presented in Table 20. While in general, the data indicate that a majority of administrators (87%) were aware of staff/professional development initiatives at Moi University (Mean score = 3.9) it is worth noting also that on the whole the administrators seemed divided or undecided since all the five means fall within the range 2.5 and 3.5 — that is “undecided” on the matters of policy and procedures.

At the next level of awareness, 61% of respondents charged that *“salary increase was used as a reward for staff development effort”* (mean score = 3.4). The data also indicate that 41% of the respondents agreed that the Moi University *“staff development policies describe the benefits to be gained by staff participation in staff development initiatives,”* but 30% disagreed and 17% don’t know. As to the assertion that *“staff development policies specify conditions for staff participation in staff/professional development activities,”* the respondents were almost evenly split, with 41% agreeing, 39% disagreeing. Finally, 54% of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with the notion that promotion was a reward for staff development (mean = 2.7). A closer look at the responses indicates that the items mostly felt to apply were those linked with monetary policies.

The interview and documentary data on policies and procedures helped to explain the survey findings. Information obtained from the Training Office and interview data point to the fact that prior to the creation of the policy document, the only document that

Table 20

Professional Development Policies and Procedures

Items (n = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%	%	%		
1. I am aware that there are PD at this university	2.2	2.2	6.5	6.5	-	-	73.9	73.9	13.0	13.0	4.3	4.3	3.93	A
2. Salary increase is used as a reward for development efforts at this university	8.7	8.7	19.6	19.6	4.3	4.3	43.5	43.5	17.4	17.4	6.5	6.5	3.44	U
3. The PD policies at this university describe the benefits to be gained by participation in the PD activities	4.3	4.3	26.1	26.1	10.9	10.9	30.4	30.4	10.9	10.9	17.4	17.4	3.21	U
4. The PD policies at this university specify conditions for participation in PD initiatives.	6.5	6.5	32.6	32.6	8.7	8.7	32.6	32.6	8.7	8.7	10.9	10.9	3.05	U
5. The policies specify obligations of the individual staff in their contribution to the improved performance of the university	6.5	6.5	37.0	37.0	19.6	19.6	23.9	23.9	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	2.86	U
6. Promotions within the university are used to reward PD activities	21.7	21.7	32.6	32.6	4.3	4.3	30.4	30.4	6.5	6.5	4.3	4.3	2.66	U

A = Agree U = Undecided

spelled out the policy aspects of training and staff development was the *Terms of Service* (MU, 1984) document, which every employee is given upon commencing employment; it details employee entitlements. Therefore a large percentage of administrators' awareness of PD policies and procedures could be attributed to this document. In the *Terms of Service*, document, some policies governing staff development are covered under the study-leave clause, which specifies policies regarding such issues as; who grants permission, the basis for granting leave, for whose interest, which office has authority, the monetary incentive, and the length of time for staff development. For example, one clause reads, "*A study leave shall only be granted to members of staff by the council on the basis of needs of the university and the interests of the staff development*" (p. 17). With regard to duration of staff development, the clause states, "*The study leave may be of any duration and on such condition as the council only may determine, to be specified in the letter of offer*" (p. 17). On the basis of this document alone, most of the administrators were made aware that staff development and training opportunities existed.

The document also spelled out policies related to incentives for staff members who undertake training. It reads, "*The salary increment credits will be awarded to a member of staff who, while in service, attains higher academic and professional qualifications*" (p. 13). It further stated, "*The vice chancellor can with the approval of the council award more than two increment credits*" (p. 13). This provision, however, was subject to an administrator's fulfilling certain conditions such as the need for the course to have been approved prior to his/her taking it, as well as the course's relevancy to the individual's role and career development at the university. Nonetheless, the results

reported elsewhere in this chapter point to the possibility of variance between what was stipulated in the document and what was actually practiced, especially where there was an absence of policy. Specifically, the interview data detailing the objectives of staff development indicated that the majority of staff members participated in programs to develop themselves first.

An interesting finding was that the document did not address the promotion issue in relation to professional development. As a matter of fact, the interview data confirmed that a staff member was not necessarily promoted upon completion of any form of study or achievement of higher academic qualification. Four respondents indicated that a number of administrators had come back to the same positions and the same roles they had occupied prior to attaining higher academic qualifications. For instance, when comparing the policies as applied to members of academic staff and administrators, two respondents remarked:

Within the academic staff, when it comes to promotion, they talk of seminars and workshops attended. In administration, no! If we could recognize them for certain skills attained and use them as a basis for promotion too, like the academics, people would take it seriously.

For the academic staff, there is a provision, which is obvious. . . . If you come in as a graduate assistant, you must go out for training. After coming back with, say, a master degree, he/she moves to tutorial fellow, but the one in administration will likely be in the same position when they come back.

In summary, the documentary and interview data supported the survey indicating that the participants were somewhat aware of PD activities, policies, financial incentives, and various conditions for participation.

Importance of policy: Six of the interview respondents noted the importance of staff development policies in guiding practice and PD outcomes. They observed that the

absence of a policy document for professional development policies has given rise to negative perceptions concerning professional development programs and the administration as a whole. Similarly, 18 of the 31 (48%) who responded to the open-ended section of the questionnaire said that the lack of policy guidelines for professional development was a major barrier to effective PD initiatives. Some of the phrases used by the respondents to cite the effects of the absence of policy were *"encouraged favoritism," "no transparent selection process," "misplacement after training," "no proper reward recognition," "improper redeployment," "irrelevant in areas of study," "duplication of efforts and area of study," "lack of teamwork as each strives to develop oneself,"* and *"unclear roles for staff development office."*

Further, the lack of policy meant that senior management could make pronouncements that were then taken to be policy, to the detriment of administrator development. One respondent narrated a case wherein one senior management staff member decided that administrative staff who were taking courses locally would no longer qualify for payment while on study leave.

The interview respondents further explained that absence of policy has created a situation in which more than one office had handled staff development issues and the approval process, giving rise to different conditions and expectations for study leave and training.

Professional development/training office: A related point concerned the lack of a strong PD coordinating office. Four of the respondents noted that success in staff development required the support of a strong central office to administer the program. At the time of this study, the university had created a central training office headed by a

training officer. The respondents were of the opinion that the creation of the new office would stimulate and streamline the administration of staff development. Prior to the creation of the new training office, two distinct but loosely related offices—one in central administration and the other in the academic division—shared staff development coordination. The latter catered mainly to academic staff, and the former served across both administration and academic staff. With two offices there was duplication of duties and different processes applied.

Staff Development Committee: the respondents also explored the role played by the Staff Development Committee, which acted as a sanctioning organ of the university for all professional development issues. Administrators perceived this committee as having little or no regard for administrators' interests in terms of PD practice and process. The following comment captures the feelings of the majority of the respondents:

Again, the SDC is really a senate committee. It has therefore tended to focus mostly on academic staff training. I think it is only when we have had a major donor like the World Bank that they get involved. . . . We have no problem with the SDC if they are able to focus on everybody. As I have said, if there is a policy, that's what should guide the committee, so that it is clear that administrators have as much right to train as the academic staff. Right now the SDC has very little support for administrators.

Summary

Based on the above findings there seems to exist a gap in the awareness of professional development initiatives, policies, and the participation in the programs by administrators. There is evidence from the findings (Table 20) that although 87% of the respondents indicated awareness, fewer than 50% had participated in any formal programs. Although the university, for the most part, played the role of granting leave approval, the majority of those who had participated did so out of their own initiative.

Interview questionnaire respondents were highly aware of PD policies especially those related to financial incentive, such as salary increase after PD, and terms or regulations regarding release and release time for study leave. Barriers noted were the absence of a clear PD policy, a centralized coordinating office, and SDC's lack of support of administrators. It was, however, anticipated that the creation of the new training office would alleviate these barriers.

PD Implementation Strategies

Cowan (1997) asserted that effective implementation of professional development activities must be in the context of a comprehensive and well-organized plan. Consequently, the participants were asked to indicate the extent to which the university used certain strategies and activities that are often used elsewhere for the implementation of professional development initiatives.

Table 21 presents the results. The data indicate that the administrators felt that more often than not, two strategies—*“staff development determined by the senior management of the university”* (means = 3.5) and *“administrative staff attended workshops and seminars organized within the university”* (means = 3.1)—were seen as the strategies most prevalently used at the university. With regard to the role of senior management, 65% of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, compared to 26% who did not. The strategies dealing with seminars showed only 54% of respondents either strongly agreeing or agreeing.

Also, the notion that *“the Training Office and Staff Development Office provided various ongoing forms of assistance for professional development for administrators”* as a strategy for PD was perceived to somewhat apply (means = 2.8). However, although

Table 21

Professional Development Strategies and Activities

Items (n = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%	%	%		
1. PD needs for administrators at this university are determined by the senior management of the university	6.5		19.6		2.2		47.8		17.4		6.5		3.53	A
2. Administrative staff attend workshops/seminars organized within the university	13.0		21.7		8.7		50.0		4.3		2.2		3.11	U
3. The "Training/PD Office" provides various ongoing forms of assistance for professional training of administrators	13.0		37.0		8.7		30.4		6.5		4.3		2.80	U
4. Administrative staff attend workshops/seminars organized outside the university	17.4		32.6		13.0		26.1		6.5		4.3		2.70	U
5. The administrative departments at this university determine their own special PD needs	10.9		47.8		10.9		21.7		6.5		2.2		2.64	U
6. The university organizes internal PD initiatives for administrators	13.0		45.7		10.9		19.6		4.3		6.5		2.53	U
7. The university utilizes the expertise of administrative staff in the university to design and implement internal PD	21.7		37.0		8.7		17.4		8.7		6.5		2.51	U

A = Agree

U = Undecided

this strategy ranked third, the data shows that 50% of all the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed, compared to 37% who strongly agreed or agreed with the existence of the strategy.

Two strategies were perceived as seldom used at the university. They were "*the university organizes internal staff development initiatives for administrators*" (MS = 2.5) and "*the university utilizes expertise of administrative staff in the university to design and implement internal staff development*" (MS = 2.5). In each case 59% of the respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the existence of these strategies.

Data from the documents and interviews indicated that administrative staff's perceptions with regard to senior management determining their staff development needs could be linked to the approval process stipulated in the *Terms of Service* (MU, 1984) as well as the role of the Staff Development Committee. According to the *Terms of Service*, either the Council, or the Vice Chancellor, acting on behalf of Council, approved all staff development (p. 13) upon recommendation of the Staff Development Committee. The rationale for centralizing authority to approve study leave was, according to one respondent, "*to ensure that people developed only in those areas that were beneficial to the university.*" He further explained that prior to any formal approval, all cases would ideally have been discussed and approved by the Staff Development Committee, which was composed primarily of senior academic staff. Nevertheless, five of the seven interviewees felt that the policy was superficial and that there was no strict control as to which areas of study the administrator pursued.

The literature points out that self initiatives is the most used strategy that most trainees use in most educational organization. This was true with Moi University.

Interview respondents who had participated in formal professional development indicated that, with the exception of the university-organized seminars and workshops, their involvement in staff development had basically been out of their own initiative. (See also Table 22.) They indicated that they chose their own areas of study and the place of study and were never influenced by the department or higher-level management. They further indicated that in all cases, their senior management approved study leave as well as the funding for all initiatives that the administrators chose to undertake—as the findings had already been provided for, by the donor agencies.

It may be fitting to suggest here that there seemed again to be a possibility of variance in terms of policy and practice. One respondent reported that “a number of heads and deans had often discovered very late that their administrative officers were leaving for studies without their knowledge and with no replacement in sight.” It was as a result of such incidences that the new policy on training and staff development addresses this issue with a series of specific criteria that address all of the above issues. They include charging the head of every department with the responsibility of determining areas of development and nominating staff for training (MU, 1999, p. 5).

From the above findings it was apparent that the statistical data did not correspond well with the interview data. Although the statistical data pointed to senior management as being largely responsible for determining training needs, the interviewee data credited individual administrators with being largely responsible.

Also, although the role of the training office was perceived to be fairly instrumental in PD strategies,— (mean = 2.8), the interview data indicated that the office had been less than active or uncoordinated. One respondent said,

"Until last year [1999] there was no office specifically charged with staff development activity only, but rather was an off-shoot of recruitment and personnel section in the administration division, and the academic planning office of the academic division."

The two offices, according to this respondent, had "*dealt with issues as they come rather than initiate proactive programs.*"

He added,

"Now that a training office just to deal with training has been established and a policy [has been] put in place, we hope things will change."

Again, the interview data did not seem to correspond well with the statistical data. On the one hand, the statistical data suggested that the training office provided ongoing forms of professional development initiatives to administrators; whereas, on the other hand, the interview data suggested that the office was uncoordinated and reactive rather than proactive. Further, the respondents felt that for the office to be effective, not only would there be need for support from senior management, but there must also be adequate authority for the office to make decisions. As one respondent remarked, "*as it is now, they are involved mainly with paper processing.*"

With regard to the university's organizing internal programs for administrator development, the interview data correspond with the statistical findings, which suggest that little has been done to utilize internal human resources. Most of the interview respondents recalled having attended seminars or workshops only four times or fewer within the last 10 years. Similarly, all seven respondents, including the senior administrators, felt that the university was endowed with talent and well-trained personnel, yet had done very little to harness these resources. They felt that there were

enough professional staff to mount courses or programs that administrators could take advantage of, rather than exclusively relying on externally run programs.

Summary

In regard to the nature of professional development and the perceptions of administrators concerning the form/type, policies, objectives and procedures, and strategies for implementation, some of the key findings were:

- Professional development initiatives existed in this university but had been ad hoc and sporadic.
- Frequency of PD activities was pegged on the availability of funds.
- The most commonly used PD forms/types were seminars, workshops, and further education.
- Most PD activities had been project or donor-supported initiatives.
- A majority of administrators were familiar with PD policies and objectives.
- The main beneficiaries of PD initiatives had been those in the higher position levels of administration.
- Individual initiative was key to most staff pursuing PD initiatives.
- Senior management support had often been limited to the granting of study leave and occasional fund solicitation.
- Barriers noted were the absence of a clear PD policy, a centralized coordinating office, the venue of PD activities, and SDC's support of administrators
- Individual and institutional developments were perceived to be among the major objective of the PD initiatives.

Rationales, Incentives, and Roles Associated With PD

The findings reported here address the third purpose of the study. Specifically, three main topics are presented: rationales for participation, organizational inputs to staff development initiatives, and the roles that the senior managers were perceived to play in the development of administrative staff.

Rationales for PD

The respondents were asked to indicate how important certain factors had been in motivating their participation in professional developments. Table 22 presents the results. Clearly, the participation in staff development was undertaken predominantly through personal initiative. This factor—individual initiative, was perceived to fairly apply to PD at Moi University—(mean of 1.9). As a matter of fact, 48% of the respondents felt that personal initiative was either fully responsible or responsible for their participation. A possible explanation for the low rating of the other factors could be the fact that a sizable proportion of the administrator population had not been involved in any formal staff development initiatives or training programs (Table 4).

An interesting observation from the data was that the three least influential factors—namely, strategic planning, individual needs assessment, and institutional needs assessment—were portrayed in the literature as key ingredients for professional development, respectively. They have also been portrayed as lacking in most African universities.

The interview respondents were also asked to share what they considered as the rationale for staff development. According to most, “coping with change” was perceived to be the main reason for professional development. Five of the seven respondents

perceived that the rapid changes being experienced at the university required new skills. Change was perceived to have occurred in the following areas: computer technology, entrepreneurial activity, marketing and public relations, students services—especially for the mature students getting into the new parallel degree programs, project management, and establishments of new college campuses. The two other respondents, however, felt that change was already being met with internally bred capacity. The respondents asserted that the change had been recognized, acknowledged, and responded to accordingly. One summarized the feeling of majority of the respondents as such:

This is an institution of higher learning, and we are in a world of new technologies. Things keep changing every day. . . . The students keep changing As administration it depends on how open we are to the influence of the new changes on the system. . . . If we are not, the changes will take us by storm.

When asked whether the administrators were professionally prepared to handle the changes, five of the seven respondents felt that, as an institution, they were not—and, Table 19 supports the notion that training initiatives had not responded accordingly to the changing environment. Because of this, the participants felt that professional development was an urgent concern. In this connection, it was interesting that two believed that the university had a huge pool of graduate personnel who were ready to take up positions of leadership. One argued that the presence of untapped talent should not be seen as un-preparedness or irresponsiveness; he remarked:

The university should not blame the existence of talent if it does not know how to utilize or harness it. We have trained manpower; all we need to do is put them to use in the most appropriate places. I agree a few are currently misplaced, not that we don't have them or that they are not ready to respond to the changes.

Organizational Inputs for PD

The administrators were also asked for their perceptions regarding the presence of a number of organizational inputs: incentives, rewards for prior experience, information/communication, decision-making structures, and resources for professional development skills. The findings are presented in Table 23, in which a high mean indicates a high level of agreement on the existence of a particular input variable, whereas low mean scores indicate less agreement on the presence of the input variable.

The data indicate that, more often than not, *"the university provided incentives or rewards for academic work undertaken relevant to one's administrative role"* (mean = 3.0). However, in terms of percentage, the administrators were evenly split in regard to the applicability of initiatives for previous academic achievement. The data indicated a combined total of 45% of administrators who either strongly agreed or agreed while 41 % either strongly disagreed or disagreed. Again, the perception may have been attributed to the fact that the incentives associated with PD are spelt out in the *Terms of Service* (MU, 1984) document or because a number of administrators had not undertaken formal PD activities.

Three inputs or incentives perceived to apply moderately were *"the university provided rewards for work experience in other sectors"* (mean = 2.3), *"information and emerging issues on professional development are communicated to administrators"* (mean = 2.3), and *"the decision-making structure promotes implementation of PD"* (mean = 2.3). However, despite the fairly high and moderate perceptions for applicability for these incentives based on means, percentage scores indicate that most of the inputs and incentives were perceived less to be a reflection of what goes on in the university.

Based on percentage scores, the data (Table 23) indicate that item 1 (information and communication), item 2 (decision-making process), and item 3 (resource availability) had a combined score of 69% each or over of the administrators who either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the existence of the particular input.

With regard to the item on "*resource availability for practicing new ideas and skills from PD,*" the combined total of 9% for strongly agreed or agreed, compared to 76% who strongly disagreed or disagreed, underscores the serious negative perception that administrators had of the lack of resources for staff to practice new ideas and skills.

The interviewees were also asked to comment on the various organizational inputs and incentives on PD. The findings indicate that their perceptions were consistent with statistical data. The majority pointed out the lack of incentives, involvement in decision-making, sufficient resources, and communication regarding administrator development issues.

Among the resources mentioned frequently were financial and technical resources. One respondent remarked,

To discuss staff development is to inevitably discuss money . . . So yes, we have been having ideas about staff development initiatives; but money, I would say, has been some kind of a limiting factor.

On lack of equipment, another remarked,

Now when they come back from training, we assume they've got skills for which they were sent out. [But] they may not have the equipment to put into practice or implement what they've learned."

Four respondents pointed out two factors with regard to communication. The first related to administrators not being privy to information, and the second was the inability

of the university to communicate with administrators who are out on training. Regarding lack of internal communication internally, one respondent remarked:

We never know what is available. We hope the training office will now be fully supported so that proper information can be obtained, . . . so that they can now reach departments and sections, sensitize people about the need for change, and pass on information about training and where the courses can be attended.

Two respondents alluded to the need for the university to harness technology to communicate information to staff in general.

With regard to communication with administrators on training, one respondent observed:

It is very unfortunate, because all of us who went to train in the UK never even got any communication from the university to inquire about our progress We thought there was an interest in what we were doing That tells you the university was not interested

Both of these comments indicate that the inputs that are essential in stimulating staff development were lacking or inadequate.

Roles of Senior Management in PD

Using similar scale values as in the above section, Table 24 presents the findings regarding the role that senior management are perceived to play in professional development initiatives. Two inferences can be made. First, there seemed to be a strong perception that senior managers did not initiate PD programs. Second, they were perceived not to offer a great deal of support for existing PD initiatives for administrators. As earlier reported, it was because of this lack of support that most administrators had used individual efforts to pursue PD.

The data indicate that the administrative staff perceived senior managers as somewhat involved in "*assisting efforts of individual administrators to pursue*

Table 24

Roles of Senior Management in Professional Development

Items (n = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%		%		
1. Individual staff members determine and pursue their own PD needs	-		6.5		23.9		32.6		30.4		6.5		3.93	A
2. The senior management assist efforts of individual administrators to pursue further PD activities	19.6		15.2		28.3		17.4		15.2		4.3		2.93	U
3. The senior management encourage staff training of any kind	21.7		28.3		17.4		15.2		10.9		6.5		2.63	U
4. The management assists staff members arrange PD initiatives	15.2		45.7		13.0		13.0		8.7		4.3		2.52	U
5. A consultative approach is used by the training office to determine the needs and objectives of PD activities	10.9		56.5		8.7		13.0		4.3		6.5		2.40	D
6. The senior management encourage inputs by groups and individuals towards PD efforts	19.6		45.7		15.2		6.5		6.5		6.5		2.30	D
A = Agree D = Disagree U = Undecided														

professional development" (mean = 2.9). The above assertion accounted for a combined total of 35% of administrators who either strongly agreed or agreed with the input. It was also worth noting that a sizable 28% were undecided on the same input. This may be explained by the fact that due to nominal involvement by the senior managers, a sizable number of administrators had not participated in formal professional development.

Similarly, the notion that "*a consultative approach is used to determine the needs and objectives of professional development*" (mean = 2.4) was perceived to be minimal and less encouraged by the senior management. In other words, the administrators did not perceive themselves as a significant part of the PD decision-making process. This perception was well captured when one considered that only 17% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this perception. A similar unfavorable perception was held by administrators regarding the senior management role in encouraging "*inputs by groups and individuals towards staff development efforts*" (mean = 2.3). Only 13% of respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the presence of this input. As well, 62% and 65% of the respondents had the perception that senior managers were not supportive of PD and did not seek advice regarding the PD needs of staff.

When they were asked to comment on the roles of senior administrators with regard to staff development, the interviewees varied in their perceptions, but were generally unfavorable. Five of the respondents felt that the senior administrator's role was dismally poor, but two felt that the senior administration had played a major role.

The five respondents were of the opinion that the only major role played by the senior administration was to award study leave to administrators who had worked hard to generate training opportunities for themselves. For instance, they commented;

Depending on the funding, some have gone through the Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM). If you get funding through DPM or any other funding organization, all the university does is to approve study leave.

There are two categories. The first category, where I belong, including a sizable number of my colleagues, the university was not involved. They just approved our scholarship, and for that I am grateful.

I would say that there has been no initiative on the part of the university administration on the development and training of administrators. But I think the university has been willing to provide study leave with pay to administrators who through their own initiative have been able to acquire training through their own channels.

They also perceived senior administration as lacking interest in administrators' development needs. This was exemplified by the fact that no follow-up was ever done that would support the administrators in utilizing newly acquired skills. Nor was there an incentive package designed to enhance staff development.

The following remark captures the feelings:

We were so enthusiastic when we came back. We were expecting senior management to follow-up on our accomplishment. Instead, it was again [up to us] to look for them and explain what we had achieved.

A number of the respondents also perceived that, due to the lack of serious coordination of staff development by the senior management, a number of freshly trained and skilled staff ended up in their previous positions, with the same duties and no authority to institute change. One interviewee also claimed that the management did not seem to want to experiment with newly earned skills. According to him, senior management seemed to be content with the status quo:

The proposals we put forward are not usually taken up with enthusiasm as we expect. It's been over five years since I came back from the UK, and my proposal on the improvement of our . . . has not even been looked at by management, let

alone discussed or implemented. Nobody even cares to approach me to find out what the proposal is all about. They seem satisfied with the way things are.

Again the role of the Staff Development Committee (SDC), which was composed of senior university management, was also lamented. Most of the respondents who had benefited from long-term staff development initiatives credited the donor agencies rather than the SDC which specified conditions for the utilization of the training funds. A number of the agencies had specified that the funds be utilized to train administrative and management staff. One respondent stated:

Any training of administrators has more or less been on their own initiative. . . . The only two programs that I think were comprehensive, because they touched on both the teaching and administrative staff, were the World Bank and the MHO projects. Many of the administrators benefited from that because it was specified in the terms of the projects. Other than that no other has benefited the administrators.

Two of the interviewees, however, felt that management had provided a great deal of support, ranging from securing funding and offering study leave with pay, to allowing administrators freedom to choose areas of development. One of these two respondents stated:

Senior administration has been charged with the responsibility of identifying those qualities and resources necessary to fulfill the mission of the university. . . . They have also to a large extent strived to raise funds—and even identify places to go. They have to go out of their way even to the US, Canada, UK, the Netherlands, and a few other places to seek scholarships for people they have identified for training. So managers have played a very crucial role.

Overall, most administrators felt that individual administrators had had to work hard to create opportunities to develop themselves and that the senior manager's role was predominantly administrative—restricted to approving their study leave as well as funding.

Professional Development Needs

The findings connected with three objectives are reported in this section. The first was to explore administrators' opinions about the importance of certain skills in their current administrative roles. The second was to assess the need for administrators to develop in these skills. The third was to explore their preferences among various methods of delivering professional development.

Importance of Specific Skills

The literature identified 15 skills, and in my survey the participants were asked to rate the importance of each skill on a scale of 0 to 5, where 0 denoted *Not important* and 5 denoted *Extremely important*. Table 25 presents the findings, with skills listed in order of attributed importance. Clearly, from the data four groups denoting levels of importance seemed to have emerged. In the 'importance' continuum, skills with mean scores of 4.55 and more were perceived to be extremely important. In this regard, the administrators were of the opinion that human resources management, computer skills, time management, and decision-making skills were extremely important to their roles.

The level 2 skills in terms of importance according to the administrators were clustered around mean scores between 4.0 and 4.5. To this end, the administrators identified skills such as team building skills, public relations skills, writing skills, leadership skills, and strategic planning skills as being important to their roles. Level 3 skills deemed fairly important were between mean scores of 3.5 and 3.9. The skills perceived to be of least importance to administrators' roles were financial and marketing skills.

Need to Develop the Skills

The participants were also asked to rate on a scale of 0 to 5 from the list of skills what they needed to develop, where 0 denoted *Not important* and 5 denoted *Extremely important*. Table 26 presents the findings, with skills listed in order of attributed need to develop. The findings also suggest three levels, each with a cluster of skills denoting level of importance in terms of need to develop. Based on the "level of need continuum," five skills with mean score of 4.5 and more were perceived as being of extreme need for development: computer skills, human resources management skills, decision-making skills, time management, and leadership skills. The level 2 cluster of skills perceived to be fairly high in need of development were in the mean score range of 4.2 and 4.4. Level 3 denoting skills with moderate need for development were clustered between mean score 3.0 and 3.8. Administrators perceived 2-level three skills—financial skills and marketing skills, as being in fairly low need of developing.

Importance and Need

Table 27 compares the "importance to role" and "need for development" that participants assigned to the each skills area. This comparison was done as a test of consistency in their responses. This comparison chart clearly shows a number of cluster skills that closely parallel the "importance" and "need for development." The comparison offers four roughly parallel cluster levels based on the means.

The first level indicates four sets of skills in which the data strongly and consistently suggested a high need for development of these skills, because they were also of high importance in the administrators' roles: human resource management,

Table 26

Current Need for Professional Development in the Selected Skills

Skills	Not important		Barely important		Fairly important		Moderately important		Very important		Extremely important		Mean	Perception
	0	%	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%		
Computer skills (n=43)	2.3		-		2.3		-		13.0		76.1		4.67	H
Human resource management (n=42)	-		-		4.8		-		21.4		73.8		4.64	H
Decision making skills (n=43)	-		-		4.7		9.3		11.6		74.4		4.56	H
Time management skills (n=42)	-		2.4		2.4		7.1		16.7		71.4		4.52	H
Leadership skills (n=41)	-		2.4		2.4		7.3		17.1		70.7		4.51	H
Public relations skills (n=42)	-		2.4		4.8		9.5		19.0		64.3		4.38	F
Strategic planning skills (n=43)	2.3		-		9.3		7.0		23.3		58.1		4.23	F
Team building skills (n=42)	-		2.4		9.5		11.9		16.7		59.5		4.21	F
Writing skills (n=42)	4.8		-		9.5		7.1		19.0		59.5		4.14	F
Counseling skills (n=42)	9.5		4.8		4.8		9.5		23.8		47.6		3.76	F
Project management skills (n=43)	2.3		9.3		9.3		20.9		16.3		41.9		3.65	F
Labor relations skills (n=42)	2.4		7.1		16.7		16.7		11.9		45.2		3.64	F
Conflict management skills (n=41)	7.3		2.4		17.1		9.8		24.4		39.9		3.58	F
Financial skills (n=43)	4.7		4.7		20.9		23.3		25.6		20.9		3.23	A
Marketing skills (n=41)	17.1		4.9		14.6		17.1		12.2		34.1		3.05	A

H = High need

F = Fairly high need

A = Average need

Table 27

Comparison of Skill Areas Ranked From Highest to Lowest in Terms of Need for Development and Importance to Current Administrative Role

Importance to role	MS	Need for development	MS
Human resource management	4.6	Computer skills	4.7
Computer skills	4.6	Human resource management	4.6
Time management Skills	4.6	Decision making skills	4.6
Decision making skills	4.6	Time management skills	4.5
Team building skills	4.5	Leadership skills	4.5
Public relations skills	4.4	Public relations skills	4.4
Writing skills	4.4	Strategic planning skills	4.2
Leadership skills	4.4	Team building skills	4.2
Strategic planning skills	4.0	Writing skills	4.2
Counselling skills	3.9	Counselling skills	3.8
Conflict management skills	3.6	Project management skills	3.7
Labour relations skills	3.6	Labour relations skills	3.6
Project management skills	3.5	Conflict management skills	3.6
Financial skills	3.0	Financial skills	3.2
Marketing skills	3.0	Marketing skills	3.1

computer skills, time management, and decision-making. The second level of skills perceived to be fairly high in importance to role and need for development clustered largely between means 4.0 and 4.5. Although these skills somewhat compare evenly in terms of means score, there were skills such as "team building" and "writing skills" whose need for development dropped in importance to the role. Similarly, skills such as "leadership skills" and "strategic planning skills", although not perceived as high in importance to role, they were comparatively perceived in high need for development. At

the fourth level were two parallel sets of skills whose importance and need were consistently low.

The interviews data also pointed out a number of the above skills as lacking at the university even though they were very important. Therefore, the respondents accorded to them a high need for development so that they could be effective in their delivery of services. A priority for immediate action according to interviewees was towards helping administrators develop in skills in the level 1 cluster as the skills were of high importance to role and need for development.

When the interview participants were asked to discuss the key PD needs for the administrators at this university, some interesting differences in views emerged. Two respondents advocated no particular emphasis on specialization in administration. They felt that the university was located in a unique environment, which necessitated that most staff members be generalists, skilled in many aspects to compensate for the uniqueness, and be able to adapt appropriately. They argued that one needed to easily "cross over" and be knowledgeable of administrative functions in both central administration and in the academic areas. One stated that this was why "*many of the young administrators are rotated regularly from one department to another.*"

Three respondents felt that university administrators need to be skilled in a variety of areas because university administration, as a profession, is "*not an exact science.*" These respondents noted that the university was ahead in many areas, in that many had trained in diverse fields, both locally and internationally, and that therefore the university boasted a huge pool of potential and the capacity to provide leadership as well as solutions to a host of issues. One respondent remarked:

Let us not forget that across the board, I don't know if this is by design, most of the administrators are learned men and women. They are young, forward looking, capable; they are adaptable and able to understand the system well. The overwhelming majority are Kenyans who have gone to school here, and so they understand the system well. They have also trained well elsewhere, and so I don't think we are about to enter into some kind of crisis period in our administrative structure in our university I think we are adaptable and we are capable of handling these changes.

Another said:

We are operating in a unique environment, and we are and should be able to design our own ways and means characteristic to our circumstances. Our circumstances are such that they cannot be taught in a class. We improvise as we go along. We have a highly trained group here who can respond to any challenges given the resources. Let us not compare ourselves with overseas universities with centuries of history and huge budgets.

There were, however, comments specifically referring to the need for development of computer skills, because the university was in the process of computerizing and networking the administration. It was also the observation of the majority that IT was the fastest growing and changing area in management of institutions, and therefore the university needed to keep up with the times in this area. Other areas mentioned were public relations, human resources management, and entrepreneurial skills.

Preferred PD Delivery Method

The participants completed a ranking of the preferred method of professional development delivery from a list of nine delivery methods obtained from literature. The respondents were asked to indicate by circling the number—"1" for the most preferred and "2" for the next preferred, up to "9" for the least preferred. Table 28 presents the results.

Table 28

Preferred Method of Professional Development Delivery

	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Rank
In-house courses/training	44	2.43	1.85	4
Conferences/workshops/seminars	45	2.31	1.56	3
Self study	41	3.95	2.65	8
Having mentors assigned	41	4.80	3.23	9
Visits	42	3.86	2.48	7
Development work assignment	43	3.84	2.87	6
In-country training at relevant institutions	45	1.40	0.62	1
Out-of-country training	44	2.11	1.70	2
Work placement	41	3.41	2.34	5

"1" was used for the most preferred method, "2" for the second most preferred method, and so on.

From plotting the data (Figure 7), four different levels emerged as preferred delivery methods—most, fairly high, medium, and least. The first level, "*in-country training at relevant institutions*" (mean = 1.40), was the most preferred delivery method. The second-level methods, preferred fairly highly by the respondents, included out-of country training and conferences. The third-level methods, moderately preferred, included work placement, development work assignments, visits, and self-study; while having mentors was the least preferred method (mean = 4.8).

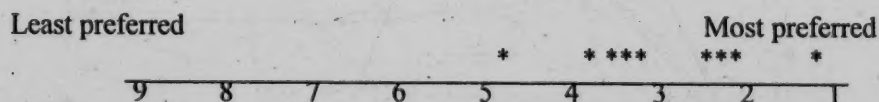


Figure 7. Plot representing preferred methods of PD delivery.

The notion of in-country training as the most preferred was echoed by five of the interview respondents, who talked of the need to focus more on relevant locally available, quality training courses that were less expensive than out-of-country programs.

A closer look at the two most preferred methods suggests that the administrators preferred those that could result in some type of certification. The least preferred were more informal and would probably have no certification. This was echoed by interview respondents who felt that certificates were important in improving chances for promotion and career progression or in enhancing career change if need be. The significance here could be traced to the fact that the university rewarded only educational programs that resulted in a recognized and higher form of certification. Hence preference was tied to both individual improvement and the reward system. It also indicates that formal training was much more recognized than informal delivery.

Another interesting finding in this regard was a possible, though, slight discrepancy between the preferred means of delivery and the most-used delivery method (Tables 17 and 27), which was "*conferences/seminars/workshops*"; and the most preferred was "*in-country training*" at relevant institutions. Personnel records from the staff development office revealed that between 1992 and 1998, among the 28 administrators involved in formal staff training programs, 25 were trained outside the country. The majority of the training was for graduate degrees, and the rest were certificate courses and internships. This finding seemed to be contrary to what most administrators perceived as the most preferred method; namely, "*in-country training at relevant institutions*." Also the majority of administrators pursued higher education rather than certificate or short programs directed towards specific skill development. This

reflects what interview respondents referred to as a desire to improve self for future career purposes rather than institutional development.

Outcomes, Barriers, and Facilitators of PD

The fourth purpose of the study was to explore administrators' perceptions regarding the outcomes of professional development initiatives, barriers to PD, and possible recommendations for PD effectiveness.

This section is organized into three parts. The first part provides the findings regarding perceived outcomes of the initiatives, the second presents the findings regarding factors that could facilitate PD, and the third discusses barriers to professional development. A thematic inductive analysis of the interviews and open-ended part of the questionnaire is also presented separately with regard to barriers and recommendations for effective professional development initiatives.

PD Outcomes

The respondents were provided with 13 statements on outcomes and were asked to rate (on a scale of 1 to 6) the degree to which they were present in Moi University. Table 29 presents the results. The results indicate, based on the scale, that all of the outcomes presented were moderately evident at Moi University. It was interesting to note that all of the 13 statements cluster between mean scores of 2.7 and 3.4. This assertion was supported by the fact that 45-50% of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that the first six outcomes of PD outlined exist at the university.

There were also a high number of respondents who were undecided on the existence of a number of outcomes. It was logical to speculate that the large percentage of the undecided was because a number of respondents had not attended PD initiatives.

Table 29

Professional Development Outcomes

Items (<i>n</i> = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%		%		
1. Has increased confidence in staff in dealing with staff/students	4.3		15.2		23.9		30.4		15.2		10.9		3.41	U
2. Has improved the professional status of administrators	8.7		17.4		19.6		28.3		21.7		4.3		3.39	U
3. Has increased awareness of staff on the need for professional growth and continuing one's education	4.3		19.6		21.7		32.6		15.2		6.5		3.37	U
4. Has increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration	4.3		19.6		23.9		26.1		17.4		8.7		3.36	U
5. Has prepared individual staff members for future positions and responsibilities in the university	13.0		8.7		28.3		21.7		23.9		4.3		3.36	U
6. Has increased staff awareness of the socio-economic conditions that affect the university	4.3		23.9		19.6		32.6		13.0		6.5		3.28	U
7. Has improved administrative performance in staff	6.5		19.6		28.3		26.1		13.0		6.5		3.21	U
8. Has provided staff with greater understanding of the university	10.9		26.1		19.6		21.7		17.4		4.3		3.09	U
9. Has improved the image of the university within the community	15.2		15.2		23.9		17.4		15.2		13.0		3.03	U

(table continues)

The outcomes least perceived to exist at the university were "*increased interaction among administrators*" and "*increased job satisfaction among administrators*". This finding reinforced the notion that the respondents perceived a lack of collaborative efforts in PD efforts and supported the interview findings in which the administrators thought that the selection process and poor placement after training had caused a lot of dissatisfaction.

The interview respondents were also asked their opinions concerning PD outcomes. Varied responses were received. The majority acknowledged that they lacked statistics or previous evaluation data to back their responses. However, the feeling held by the majority was that they had, to a large extent, not been effective in achieving their personal or institutional goals. Some of the comments that supported their feelings include the following:

No evaluation has been done since we started, so we cannot be sure what the impact is. But I doubt whether there is much.

Basically, training is to improve the delivery of service in the university. . . . Most people have gone to train in areas the university does not need. . . . They have not added value to service delivery.

Few have translated into promotions.

Many have come back to the same offices to do the same things.

No new skills are evident. Perhaps it is because we all lack resources to use or because the administration does not provide free hand to practice new skills learned.

One of the respondents indicated that the lack of evaluation was in itself a weakness in the PD program at Moi University. He further argued that all programs

needed an evaluation stage and that for the initiatives to have been running under donor funding for a long time without an evaluation was in itself a failure.

Other comments indicated positive outcomes, especially towards the development of the individual's skills, morale, and feelings of self-worth. Two respondents remarked, "*Absolutely yes for the individual, since they have attained higher qualification, but no for the university*"; and "*Yes, I feel I am now ready for newer challenges here or elsewhere.*"

One respondent also indicated that PD had increased the desire of other administrators to attain higher education. The initiatives could thus be credited with having motivated staff towards self-development.

Facilitating Factors for PD

The respondents were asked to indicate what they perceived to be factors that could facilitate or promote PD at the university. Table 30 presents the results, which indicate that the respondents perceived the factors listed to hardly apply in facilitating PD at Moi University. However, the "availability of resources" (mean = 2.0) was the only factor seen to moderately apply as a factor that promotes professional development.

An interesting distinction between the statistical finding and the interviews was that five of the seven interviewees considered the setting up of policy guidelines as instrumental to the success of professional development, whereas the questionnaire respondents disagreed (mean = 0.9). As a matter of fact, 48% of all survey respondents felt that policy guidelines would likely not be responsible for promoting professional development, and only 20% of the respondents felt it would.

The changes in the student enrolment and a cooperative attitude of facilitators were perceived to be of low importance in promoting professional development at the university, with a mean score of 1.0 each.

Further, interview respondents were clear on the fact that the university at the time boasted a relatively well-educated staff (Table 8). This was seen as a plus and something on which the university could build on as it adapted to the factors that influence the system. One interviewee remarked:

Let us not forget that across the board . . . most of our administrators are Kenyans and are really learned men and women. They are young, forward looking, capable, and adaptable. And they seem to understand the system well. I don't think we are about to enter into a crisis. I think we are adaptable and capable of handling any changes.

Among the factors perceived by the interview respondents to promote professional development were the introduction of a policy document, incentives beyond monetary compensation, provision of more resources, and democratization of the decision-making processes with respect to professional development.

Appendix F provides a list of factors that survey respondents identified in the open-ended section of the questionnaire regarding the strength of the staff development programs. Among those cited frequently were a strong training policy, establishing a strong and working training office, revamping of study leave terms, fee waiver for staff attending PD programs at the university, personal initiatives being encouraged, and a salary increase upon attaining higher academic qualification.

Impediments

Thirteen possible barriers were presented to participants, and were asked to rate them as possible impediments to professional development. Table 31 presents the results. From the data, two levels of perceptions were evident; namely, *fairly high* (above means = 4.00), and *moderate* (mean = 2.7 and less) for the notion that the 13 factors were impediments to PD.

In terms of specific factors the following five factors were perceived to be fairly evident as impediments: "*Insufficient budget for staff development*" (mean = 4.4), "*lack of flexibility in the institution for administration to venture out on their own for a development program*" (mean = 4.3), "*inadequate communication/information on available staff development opportunities*" (mean = 4.1), "*lack of organizational support*" (mean = 4.0), and "*lack of incentive for administrators to pursue staff development opportunities*" (mean = 4.0).

Three other factors—namely, the lack of human resources, lack of time to participate in any form of training, and staff indifference to the introduction of new ideas—were perceived to moderately apply as impediments to PD at Moi University.

Interview and Documentary Information Regarding Barriers to PD

A content analysis of both interview and questionnaire statements revealed several specific and general barriers to the professional development of university administrators at Moi University. Appendix G provides both summaries. The responses are a summary of 31 of the 46 respondents who responded to the open ended section of

Table 31

Factors Likely to Impede Professional Development

Items (n = 46)	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree		Don't know		Mean	Perception
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4	%	5	%		%		
1. Insufficient budget for PD	4.3	4.3	6.5	6.5	2.2	2.2	21.7	21.7	65.2	65.2	-	-	4.37	A
2. Lack of flexibility in the institution for administrators to venture on their own for development programs	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	-	-	37.0	37.0	54.3	54.3	-	-	4.33	A
3. Inadequate communication/information on available PD opportunities	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	2.2	2.2	32.6	32.6	47.8	47.8	4.3	4.3	4.14	A
4. Lack of organizational support	2.2	2.2	15.2	15.2	2.2	2.2	30.4	30.4	50.0	50.0	-	-	4.11	A
5. Lack of incentive for administrators to pursue PD opportunities	6.5	6.5	21.7	21.7	2.2	2.2	34.8	34.8	34.8	34.8	-	-	3.70	A
6. Not part of institutional planning	10.9	10.9	17.4	17.4	6.5	6.5	23.9	23.9	32.6	32.6	8.7	8.7	3.55	A
7. Inactive PD office	13.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	6.5	6.5	23.9	23.9	39.1	39.1	4.3	4.3	3.55	A
8. Too much emphasis is placed on organizational requirements	2.2	2.2	21.7	21.7	13.0	13.0	32.6	32.6	17.4	17.4	13.0	13.0	3.48	U
9. Lack of guidance to administrators on the importance of PD	8.7	8.7	21.7	21.7	13.0	13.0	28.3	28.3	28.3	28.3	-	-	3.46	U
10. The initiatives lack relevancy to the needs of the individual staff members	8.7	8.7	21.7	21.7	15.2	15.2	28.3	28.3	17.4	17.4	8.7	8.7	3.26	U
11. Lack of human resources	32.6	32.6	21.7	21.7	2.2	2.2	26.1	26.1	17.4	17.4	-	-	2.74	U
12. Lack of time to participate in any form of training	39.1	39.1	23.9	23.9	4.3	4.3	13.0	13.0	19.6	19.6	-	-	2.50	U/D
13. General staff indifference to the introduction of new ideas	39.1	39.1	21.7	21.7	6.5	6.5	23.9	23.9	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	2.30	D

A = Agree

U = Undecided

D = Disagree

the questionnaire. For presentation, the barriers have been grouped according to the broad themes that emerged: economic, technical, attitudinal, structural, planning, and conceptual.

Economic. The lack of sufficient financial resources to carry out a sustained staff development program was the most frequently mentioned barrier. All of the interviewees agreed that lack of finances from the institution was to blame for the modest professional development activity; 10 of the 31 questionnaires also listed financial resources as an impediment. The senior officer, who declined to be interviewed, provided a five-year staff development budget allocation (Table 1); when compared between the academic and non-academic staff, it was clear that little funding had been earmarked over the years for PD activities for non-academic staff. It should be noted that the non-academic allocation catered to all the staff in the university who were non-teaching staff, and not just professional administrators. At the time of the research the non-teaching staff numbered approximately 1,200.

An important point raised by four interview respondents relates to the idea that the lack of institutional initiative in terms of allocating sufficient funds had resulted in dependency on projects and donor agencies, which they felt did not reflect well on the university. They emphasized the fact that the nature of funding available defines the nature of the initiative to be undertaken. They noted that the university budget was virtually never sufficient to pursue substantial and continuous professional development programs and that the few notable initiatives had all been donor supported. A few of the initiatives that the university has undertaken were seminars and workshops. The workshops were restricted largely to academic administrators because the amount of

available funds could not accommodate all administrators. Donors had funded the long-term programs, which required huge budgets. In the words of one respondent, "*The University cannot lay claim fully to the initiatives since they have not been responsible for the bulk of the funding.*" The respondents advocated a balance of the two. Most respondents, as reported earlier, had pursued PD program/training under donor/project related funding.

A further recommendation from three interview respondents was that the university ought to scale back from supporting further education only for higher degrees overseas and concentrate on less expensive in-country training and development opportunities. These respondents recommended more "in-house seminars" while utilizing services and expertise of the university staff or professional consultancy. They further contended that the university was almost self-sufficient in human resources, with sufficient skills available to mount inexpensive programs rather than using expensive foreign institutions. In the words of one respondent, this approach would "*free up monies to train more administrators in more relevant areas and for needy sections of the university.*"

Overall there was a general agreement on the need to include cheaper options to cover the majority of administrators and that the process be pegged to a policy. They also felt that this approach would help break away from complete donor dependency model in terms of funding and a move towards a shared approach.

Technical. All the seven interview participants pointed to the lack of technical resources as another major impediment. Computer facilities and fax machines were key in this respect. They argued that the university had not provided enough facilities for the

administrators to carry out their work effectively and that whenever one wanted things done, one had to rely on key offices that had the facilities. They felt that this slowed things down, especially in faculties with large numbers of students.

Three participants felt that the lack of know-how in the existing technical resources further complicated the matter. They believed that even in those areas where computers were available, a good number did not utilize them effectively for administrative purposes because they had limited computer and other technical skills.

One remarked:

Across the board, the computers have replaced typewriters. But the secretaries are using them just for word processing There is so much to it if we were all knowledgeable. Look, I have one in my office, but I have not been sensitized on how I can fully use it to keep, organize, or access records with it. I don't even know what kind of software is installed. Right now some of our computers are covered the whole day.

Another barrier categorized under "technical" was the lack of policy on administrator development. This was mentioned not only by all of the interview respondents, but also by 52% of the questionnaire respondents. A number of negative effects were associated with the lack of the policy guidelines. Among those mentioned frequently were lack of transparency in the selection process, inappropriate deployment, favoritism resulting in multiple opportunities for a few, overspecialization in one area of study, unclear processes, interference by management, and no evaluation on initiatives.

Attitudinal. The administrators perceived attitudes as barriers at three levels: the senior administration, the Staff Development Committee, and administrators.

Senior administration. All seven interviewees, as well as seven (31%) of the questionnaire respondents, felt that the senior administration either did not understand or did not value and appreciate the need for administrator development. Throughout the

interviews it was emphasized that the attitudes of senior management had largely influenced the way the administrators viewed themselves and how they felt and acted towards their own development. Most of the administrators felt that their own development initiatives had been born largely out of the fact that senior administration did not feel obliged to provide any kind of programs for them.

When asked what the source of the senior administrators' attitude was, four respondents blamed it on the administrative structure as well as the legal framework that governed the university. Under the current structure, they felt, any type of initiative demanded that senior management play a key role. In this respect the senior administration should, as provided for in the Act, come from amongst the professors, which by definition makes them academic administrators. The weakness in this structure as perceived by the administrators was that the academic administrator's allegiance were skewed towards the academic staff whenever training and development issues and opportunities were concerned, to the detriment of administrator development.

The Staff Development Committee: Related to the above was the attitude that administrators believed were held by the SDC towards administrator development. As explained earlier, the SDC was predominantly composed of academic staff, with administrators providing the secretarial service. With no administrator representation on the SDC, the overwhelming feeling or attitude continues to be that academic staff got priority over administration. The senior administrator who also lamented the situation blamed it on the historical development of the institution. He noted that the MacKay (1982) Report, which recommended the establishment of the university, put a high priority on the development of local academic staff to replace the expatriate academic

staff. That emphasis has persisted to date despite the fact that the university was at the time overwhelmingly local in terms of academic and administrative staff population.

Administrators. The attitude of administrators was rooted, according to two respondents, in the lack of policy guidelines on key issues regarding professional development. For instance, the prevailing feeling of a majority of the respondents was that professional development programs should in some way translate into promotion, salary, and/or certification or provide administrators with the potential to prepare them for promotion as quickly as possible. This perception was discussed at length, particularly in a comparison of the practices for academic staff to those of administrators. The feeling was that there were different standards applied for the two cadres. If staff development amounted to offering nothing in terms of career progression or immediate monetary benefits, then administrators did not consider it worth pursuing.

Structure. The organizational structure was perceived as an impediment to both development and implementation of learned skills. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the university had a rigid and highly centralized system of administration. Decisions on administrator development came from higher up the hierarchy. With a hierarchy that had little commitment to administrator development, administrators perceived staff development to be pushed to the background. The senior administrator, commenting on the structure, reiterated the implication of the structure with regard to PD and funding:

Our system is so centralized, and that is why there are a lot of sentiments against the central administration. Everything ranging from financial control to decision making in terms of administration is centrally controlled Again I will reiterate that finances being obtained from one source have influenced our central tendency. For that reason, the administration bears the responsibility for accounting for the same finances to the taxpayers; hence the need to monitor usage. It is never intended to be a means of control in the negative sense.

The centralized structure thus influenced both the financial and decision including professional development matters.

Part of the structure problem, according to four respondents, was the lack of a viable coordinating office. They argued that the two loosely coordinated offices had officers with little or no decision-making authority who were therefore ineffective. One respondent, who had pursued further education, indicated that he/she, like many others, did not deal much with these offices because of their lack of authority. Instead, he/she had gone directly to senior administration.

Both the interview and the questionnaire respondents called for an invigorated office with trained personnel who would be knowledgeable in fundraising or the methods of "soliciting" resources and staff development opportunities.

Planning. Six interview respondents discussed a number of issues that clearly illustrate a lack of planning for administrator development. The majority felt that the university should institute plans that lay down short and long-term individual and organizational means and strategies for obtaining PD goals and objectives. To the respondents, there were no such plans at the university. The respondents were asked why not, and some of the descriptions of this notion included, "*It is not a priority,*" "*No one cares,*" "*It's kind of spontaneous,*" "*donor dependent,*" "*usually on ad hoc basis,*" "*there were no plans made to see that we should train.*"

The respondents further perceived that the lack of planning resulted in administrators fending for themselves professionally, multiple opportunities being offered to the same people, and overemphasis on one area of study.

There was also a belief that due to the lack of planning, administrators had developed skills in areas that were not really requirements for their current roles or for anywhere else in administration. When an opportunity presented itself, they took it regardless of whether the area was relevant or not. Asked why administrators exhibited these tendencies, one explained that administrators engaged in self-development with the hope that they would use it to look for greener pastures should an opportunity provide itself.

Conceptualization. Many of the respondents saw professional development in terms of seminars, workshops, conferences, or other forms of formal training; little or no attention was paid to non-formal forms of staff professional development. This was evident in the fact that many administrators had rotated through a number of sections in administration but did not mention the movement as a form of professional development. All of the discussion revolved around the terms *training*, *staff development*, and *going out* (meaning for overseas studies). The majority of the respondents talked of formal training or further studies as a norm. Implicit in their conceptualization were approaches that would enable them to acquire either certification or a form of recognition that would enable them to be promoted or compensated monetarily. The great desire for administrators for both overseas studies and locally available long-term management or administration programs overshadowed the desire for other forms, to the point where they were seen as the predominant, if not as the only, forms that qualified as PD. Approaches such as *on-the-job training*, *job rotation*, and *mentoring* did not suffice as PD terminology. The manner in which professional development had been handled had

perpetuated the concept of further education or formal training as the main form of staff development, and anything else did not count.

Two interviewees observed that though job rotation was supposed to be seen as part of PD, administrators had come to view it as a punitive measure against an individual whenever it happened. They asserted that most offices had been "personalized" so that whenever administrators were shifted around, it was interpreted to mean incompetence on the part of one of them. They further explained that some departments and offices had been seen to be particularly difficult in which to work, and therefore to be moved to such department or office could not be seen as part of PD, but rather as a punishment. These findings clearly indicate that the administrators needed a different perspective in viewing alternative PD strategies, and to shift from formal PD only, and to be sensitized on other informal and non-formal forms.

Overall, the respondents felt that there were real issues that the administration needed to streamline before effective PD could be implemented. Otherwise, as it was at the time, PD initiatives were riddled with difficult barriers.

Variables

This section presents a comparison of responses to the questionnaire items based on selected administrator demographic variables. Four selected variables—namely, administrative position, administrative division, gender, and staff development participation—were the basic variables used for comparison. Although other variables such as age, work experience, and academic qualifications were analyzed, they were found to be a reflection or a function of the administrative positions. I acknowledge that it was difficult to determine which of the variables was responsible for the perspective or

views held by the respondents, as this would require further inferential statistics that involve techniques beyond the purpose of this study.

Both mean scores and percentages (where applicable) were used to compare administrator perceptions of aspects of the professional development activities at the university. Only aspects of the professional development characteristics and perceptions where margins appeared wide were reported.

Administrative Positions

Objectives

Table 32 presents a comparison of responses on the objectives on the basis of administrative positions levels. The results indicate that there were more similarities than there were differences in the way the groups perceived the various objectives. However, there was some indication that the PAOs (senior administrative staff) found the definition (63%) and aims (63%) of PD clearer than the SAOs/AOs and SAAs/AAs did. This suggests that, overall, the PAOs perceived both the clarity of definition and the objectives of staff development much more positively and tended to agree more with the existence of the items than did the lower levels. This was a challenge for administration in terms of the need to sensitize the lower levels of administration with regard to professional development objectives. It can also be speculated that the difference in perception may have occurred because most of the lower categories of staff had not participated in formal professional development initiatives compared to senior level administrative positions.

Table 32

PD Objectives Based on Administrative Position

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. The university's definition of PD is clear to me	PAO (n=8)	25.0		12.5		62.5		3.25	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	52.9		17.6		29.4		2.58	U
2. The aims of PD of this university are clear to me	AA and SAA (n=21)	57.1		4.8		38.1		2.57	U
	PAO (n=8)	25.0		12.5		62.5		3.38	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	62.5		6.3		31.3		2.63	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	47.6		9.5		42.9		2.81	U
3. The activities that constitute PD are clear to me	PAO (n=8)	25.0		25.0		50.0		3.13	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	50.0		6.3		43.8		2.88	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	38.1		4.8		57.1		3.24	U
	PAO (n=7)	42.9		14.3		42.9		2.88	U
4. The role of the university in the implementation of PD are clear to me	AO and SAO (n=17)	52.9		-		47.1		3.00	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	57.3		8.9		37.8		2.48	SA
	PAO (n=8)	37.5		37.5		25.0		2.75	U
5. The expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the PD efforts at this university are clear to me	AO and SAO (n=15)	46.7		26.7		26.7		2.67	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	66.7		9.5		23.8		2.43	U

(table continues)

Policies

Table 33 presents the results of the analysis of six statements on policies and procedures on the basis of administrative position. The data indicate that all of the administrators were aware and highly agreed on the presence of PD initiatives at the university. This assertion was consistent with the findings from the analysis of the overall number of respondents, which indicated a high level of awareness among the administrators on the existence of the initiatives. This was attributed partly to the fact that every staff member was provided with the *Terms of Service* document upon commencing work at the university.

Another observation from the data was that, on average, the mean scores for the PAOs for all statements were consistently higher than those for the SAAs/AAs. This suggests that administrators at higher levels on average agreed more on the presence of policies than did the SAAs/AAs. Again this may have resulted from the fact that most of the senior administrators had participated in professional development initiatives and received salary increments compared to the lower ranked administrators who had not.

Strategies

Table 34 presents the results of a comparison between the administrator positions of the seven listed strategies for professional development. The data, suggest that all position levels moderately agreed with the existence of the strategies at Moi University. However, there seemed to be a higher percentage score suggesting a disagreement among the lower ranks in terms of how they perceived a number of implementation strategies. For instance, 70% of AAs and SAAs either strongly disagreed/disagreed that "*the administrative departments determine their own special staff development needs*"

Table 33

PD Policies and Procedures Based on Administrative Position

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree		Undecided		Strongly agree or agree		Mean	Perception
		1 or 2	%	3	%	4 or 5	%		
1. I am aware that there are PD initiatives at this university	PAO (n=8) AO and SAO (n=16) AA and SAA (n=20)	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	4.25	SA
		12.5		-		87.5		3.75	SA
		10.0		-		90.0		3.95	SA
2. The PD policies at this university describe the benefits to be gained by staff participation in the staff development activities	PAO (n=5) AO and SAO (n=13) AA and SAA (n=20)	40.0		20.0		40.0		3.00	U
		38.5		15.4		46.2		3.15	U
		35.0		10.0		55.0		3.30	U
3. The PD policies at this university specify conditions for staff participation in staff development initiatives	PAO (n=7) AO and SAO (n=16) AA and SAA (n=18)	28.6		14.3		57.1		3.14	U
		50.0		12.5		37.5		2.94	U
		44.4		5.6		50.0		3.11	U
4. The policies specify obligations of the individual staff in their contribution to the improved performance of the university	PAO (n=8) AO and SAO (n=17) AA and SAA (n=18)	37.5		37.5		25.0		2.88	U
		47.1		17.6		35.3		2.88	U
		50.0		16.7	6	33.3		2.83	U
5. Salary increase is used as a reward for PD efforts at this university	PAO (n=8) AO and SAO (n=16) AA and SAA (n=19)	12.5		-		87.5		4.13	SA
		25.0		12.5		62.5		3.44	U
		42.1		-		57.9		3.16	U
6. Promotions within the university are used to reward PD efforts	PAO (n=8) AO and SAO (n=17) AA and SAA (n=19)	62.5		-		37.5		2.63	U
		47.1		11.8		41.2		2.71	U
		63.2		-		36.8		2.63	U

SA = Strongly/agree A = Agree U = Undecided

Table 34

PD Strategies for Implementation Based on Administrative Position

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%	%	%	%	%	%		
1. PD needs for administrators at this university are determined by the senior management of the university	PAO (n=8)	25.0		-		75.0		3.63	SA
	AO and SAO (n=15)	26.7		6.7		66.7		3.60	SA
	AA and SAA (n=20)	30.0		-		70.0		3.45	SA
2. The "Training/PD Office" provides various ongoing forms of assistance for professional training of administrators	PAO (n=8)	50.0		25.0		25.0		2.63	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	41.2		11.8		47.1		3.12	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	52.3		9.1		38.6		2.58	U
3. The administrative departments determine their own special PD needs	PAO (n=8)	50.0		12.5		37.5		2.75	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	52.9		17.6		29.4		2.76	U
	AA and SAA (n=20)	70.0		5.0		25.0		2.50	U
4. The university utilizes the expertise of administrative staff in the university to design and implement internal PD initiatives	PAO (n=8)	50.0		37.5		12.5		2.38	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	50.0		6.3		43.8		2.94	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	78.9		-		27.9		2.21	SD
5. The university organizes internal PD initiatives for administrators	PAO (n=8)	37.5		37.5		25.0		2.87	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	68.8		6.3		25.0		2.44	SD
	AA and SAA (n=19)	68.4		5.3		26.3		2.47	SD
6. Administrative staff attend work-shops/seminars organized within the university	PAO (n=8)	12.5		-		87.5		3.75	SA
	AO and SAO (n=17)	35.3		11.8		52.9		3.12	U
	AA and SAA (n=20)	45.0		10.0		45.0		2.85	U
7. Administrative staff attend work-shops/seminars organized outside the university	PAO (n=8)	28.6		28.6		42.9		3.00	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	56.3		12.5		31.3		2.63	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	57.1		9.5		33.3		2.67	U

SD = Strongly/disagree

U = Undecided

SA = Strongly/agree

compared to 50% of PAOs. Similarly, 68.4% of the AAs/SAs and SAs/AOs either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the notion that "*the university organizes internal staff development for administrators*" compared to 37.5% of PAOs. Again this pattern suggests that there seems to be a gap in terms of perceptions between the senior levels and the lower levels with regard to the strategies. The administrators in the lower levels tended to disagree more on the existence of the selected strategies than did the higher level positions.

Organizational Inputs

In Table 35 the results of the different administrative levels on the presence of organizational inputs are presented. Based on both the mean scores and percentages, the data indicate that there was a high degree of similarity in perception among the three position levels regarding the inputs. The results suggested a fairly high level of disagreement on the existence of the various organizational inputs at the university.

PD Needs

Analyses for both the "importance" and "need to develop" skills as perceived by the different levels of administrators revealed fairly similar opinions. The results (Tables 36 and 37) clearly show that the administrators in all position levels felt that the skills were highly important and that there was a high need for development.

However, there seemed to have been higher importance of and need for development of marketing skills for PAOs than for the lower levels. This may relate to the requirements by universities in Kenya to generate their own funds to supplement government grants. PAOs, being senior officers were expected to implement

Table 35

PD Presence of Organizational Input Based on Administrative Position

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. Information and emerging issues on PD are communicated to administrative staff	PAO (n=8)	75.0		12.5		12.5		2.00	SD
	AO and SAO (n=15)	73.3		6.7		20.0		2.27	SD
	AA and SAA (n=21)	71.4		4.8		23.8		2.43	SD
2. Resources are available to staff for practicing the new ideas and skills they have learned from PD	PAO (n=8)	75.0		12.5		12.5		2.13	SD
	AO and SAO (n=15)	73.3		13.3		13.3		2.13	SD
	AA and SAA (n=21)	85.7		9.5		4.8		2.00	SD
3. The decision making structure of the university promotes implementation of PD	PAO (n=8)	62.5		25.0		12.5		2.25	SD
	AO and SAO (n=16)	81.3		6.3		12.5		2.06	SD
	AA and SAA (n=20)	70.0		10.0		20.0		2.45	U
4. The university provides incentives/rewards for academic work undertaken relevant to one's administrative role	PAO (n=8)	25.0		25.0		50.0		3.13	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	43.8		6.3		50.0		3.06	U
	AA and SAA (n=20)	50.0		5.0		45.0		2.90	U
5. The university provides rewards for work experience in other sectors	PAO (n=8)	37.5		37.5		25.0		2.75	U
	AO and SAO (n=15)	80.0		6.7		13.3		2.00	SD
	AA and SAA (n=18)	72.2		-		27.8		2.44	SD

SD = Strongly/disagree

U = Undecided

Table 36

Importance of Skills to Current Role Based on Administrative Position

Skills	PAO* (n=8)		SAO and AO (n=17)		SAA and AA (n=21)	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Project management skills	3.43	13	3.53	13	3.52	12
Decision making skills	4.75	1	4.82	1	4.29	7.5
Financial skills	3.29	14.5	3.12	14	2.90	14
Marketing skills	3.71	12	2.75	15	2.85	15
Human resource management	4.50	5	4.43	5	4.75	3
Leadership skills	4.43	6.5	4.47	4	4.29	7.5
Computer skills	4.75	2	4.59	2.5	4.57	6
Strategic planning skills	4.43	6.5	4.18	6.5	3.67	10
Conflict management skills	4.00	10	3.59	11.5	3.43	13
Public relations skills	4.29	8.5	4.12	8.5	4.76	1.5
Labor relations skills	3.29	14.5	3.59	11.5	3.62	11
Time management skills	4.57	3.5	4.59	2.5	4.62	5
Team building skills	4.57	3.5	4.12	8.5	4.76	1.5
Counseling skills	3.86	11	3.65	10	4.14	9
Writing skills	4.29	8.5	4.18	6.5	4.67	4

Response scale: 0 = not important, 5 = extremely important

* Some of the skill items were answered by only 7 PO's.

Table 37

Current Need for PD of Skills Based on Administrative Position

Skills	PAO* (n=8)		SAO and AO (n=17)		SAA and AA (n=18)	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Project management skills	3.75	14	3.53	11	3.72	12
Decision making skills	4.75	1.5	4.35	4	4.67	5.5
Financial skills	3.88	13	2.82	14	3.33	14
Marketing skills	4.29	7.5	2.71	15	2.88	15
Human resource management	4.29	7.5	4.53	1	4.89	1
Leadership skills	4.57	3.5	4.47	2	4.53	8.5
Computer skills	4.75	1.5	4.41	3	4.88	2
Strategic planning skills	4.50	5	3.75	7	4.53	8.5
Conflict management skills	4.14	10.5	3.35	12	3.59	13
Public relations skills	4.57	3.5	3.94	6	4.72	4
Labor relations skills	4.14	10.5	3.29	13	3.78	11
Time management skills	4.29	7.5	4.29	5	4.83	3
Team building skills	4.29	7.5	3.71	8.5	4.67	5.5
Counseling skills	3.00	15	3.59	10	4.22	10
Writing skills	4.00	12	3.71	8.5	4.61	7

Response scale: 0 = no need, 5 = high need

* Some of the skill items were answered by only 7 PO's.

entrepreneurship strategies for the university. Hence obtaining marketing skills would have to be an asset.

Outcomes

Table 38 presents the results of administrators' responses with regard to professional development outcomes based on administrative levels. Considering that the outcomes continuum was based on a scale of 1-5, the results suggest that all the different groups seemed to be of the opinion that the university had somewhat achieved most of the outcomes presented.

It was worth noting that across all levels the percentage of administrators who were undecided on a number of issues was quite high. Three outcomes ranked particularly high among the PAOs. It was noted that 50% of the PAOs were undecided on whether the staff development initiatives "*had improved administrative performance of staff.*" Further, 62.5% of the PAOs were *undecided* for both "*enhanced teamwork among administrative staff in pursuing university goals*" and "*increased interaction among staff in general.*" The *undecided* score may be associated with the fact that no formal evaluation has been done to establish the degree of success of the initiatives. Three interview respondents mentioned the fact that statistics to measure outcomes were lacking because evaluation was never done.

Table 38 indicates that, overall, when compared across the position levels, the PAOs agreed more with most outcomes than did the others. This may have resulted from the fact that, on average, the PAOs had been involved in PD activities more than the other two groups had.

Table 38

PD Outcomes Based on Administrative Position

Items	Group	Strongly disagree /disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%	%	%	%	%	%		
1. Has stimulated learning among the administrators	PAO (n=8)	25.0		25.0		50.0		3.25	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	29.4		35.3		35.3		3.06	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	42.1		31.6		26.3		2.74	U
2. Has increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration	PAO (n=8)	-		25.0		75.0		4.00	A
	AO and SAO (n=15)	26.7		20.0		53.3		3.53	A
	AA and SAA (n=19)	36.8		31.6		31.6		2.95	U
3. Has increased confidence in staff in dealing with staff/students	PAO (n=8)	12.5		-		87.5		4.00	A
	AO and SAO (n=15)	13.3		33.3		53.3		3.60	A
	AA and SAA (n=18)	33.3		33.3		33.3		3.00	U
4. Has improved administrative performance of staff	PAO (n=8)	-		50.0		50.0		3.50	A
	AO and SAO (n=16)	25.0		31.3		43.8		3.31	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	42.1		21.1		36.8		3.00	U
5. Has increased awareness of staff on the need for professional growth and continuing one's education	PAO (n=8)	-		25.0		75.0		3.88	A
	AO and SAO (n=16)	31.3		25.0		43.8		3.25	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	31.6		21.1		47.4		3.26	U
6. Has increased staff awareness of the socio-economic conditions that affect the university	PAO (n=8)	12.5		12.5		75.0		3.63	A
	AO and SAO (n=16)	31.3		25.0		43.8		3.31	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	36.8		21.1		42.1		3.11	U

(table continues)

Items	Group	Strongly disagree /disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
7. Has provided staff with greater understanding of the university	PAO (n=8)	25.0		37.5		37.5		3.00	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	41.2		23.5		35.3		3.00	U
	AA and SAA (n=19)	42.1		10.5		47.4		3.21	U
8. Has enhanced team-work among administrative staff in pursuing university goals	PAO (n=8)	25.0		62.5		12.5		2.75	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	47.1		23.5		29.4		2.82	U
	AA and SAA (n=20)	50.0		20.0		30.0		2.80	U
9. Has increased job satisfaction among the administrators	PAO (n=8)	12.5		37.5		50.0		3.50	A
	AO and SAO (n=16)	37.5		37.5		25.0		2.94	U
	AA and SAA (n=21)	66.7		14.3		19.0		2.14	SD
10. Has increased interaction among staff in general	PAO (n=8)	12.5		62.5		25.0		3.13	U
	AO and SAO (n=17)	52.9		29.4		17.6		2.65	U
	AA and SAA (n=18)	55.6		11.1		33.3		2.67	U
11. Has prepared individual staff members for future positions and responsibilities in the university	PAO (n=8)	12.5		25.0		62.5		3.63	A
	AO and SAO (n=16)	12.5		31.3		56.3		3.69	A
	AA and SAA (n=20)	35.0		30.0		35.0		3.00	U
12. Has improved the professional status of administrators	PAO (n=8)	12.5		25.0		62.5		3.88	A
	AO and SAO (n=17)	23.5		23.5		52.9		3.53	A
	AA and SAA (n=19)	36.8		26.3		36.8		3.05	U
13. Has improved the image of the university within the community	PAO (n=7)	-		57.1		42.9		3.43	U
	AO and SAO (n=16)	37.5		25.0		37.5		3.19	U
	AA and SAA (n=17)	47.1		17.6		35.3		2.71	U

A = Agree U = Undecided SD = Strongly/disagree

Administrative Division

This section examines the differences between the perceptions of administrators in the two administrative divisions—administrative and academic—concerning PD at Moi University. On the basis of administrative division, analyses on a number of key theme areas cited below revealed that there existed no substantial difference between the means for the two administrative divisions.

The results of the t-test analyses on program objectives, policies and procedures, strategies and activities, organizational inputs, senior management input, outcomes/effectiveness, and impediments to professional development revealed no differences between the means for all of the respondents in the two administrative divisions.

There were, however, areas that suggested gaps with regard to perceptions as reflected in the mean scores as examined below.

Importance and Need for Development

The results of an analysis for the 15 skills areas analyzed on the basis of division in administration are provided in Tables 39 and 40. The results indicate that both divisions were of the opinion that the skills were of high importance; in addition, there was a high need for development of most of the skills. However, there seemed to have been a higher importance for the academic division compared to administration division with regard to "*conflict management skills*", "*strategic planning*" and "*counseling*".

Table 39

Importance of Skills to Present Role Based on Administrative Division

Skills	Academic division		Administrative division	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Project management skills	3.86	12	3.4	10
Decision making skills	4.59	4	4.48	3
Financial skills	3.05	15	2.95	14
Marketing skills	3.14	14	2.74	15
Human resource management	4.57	6	4.62	1
Leadership skills	4.45	9	4.20	8
Computer skills	4.91	1	4.24	7
Strategic planning skills	4.45	9	3.35	11
Conflict management skills	4.00	11	3.10	13
Public relations skills	4.45	9	4.55	2
Labor relations skills	3.41	13	3.65	9
Time management skills	4.82	2	4.30	5
Team building skills	4.59	4	4.30	5
Counseling skills	4.55	7	3.25	12
Writing skills	4.59	4	4.30	5

Response scale: 0 = not important; 5 = extremely important

Table 40

Current Need for PD Based on Administrative Division

Skills	Academic division		Administrative division	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Project management skills	3.86	12	3.58	11
Decision making skills	4.57	3.5	4.47	4
Financial skills	3.05	15	3.42	12
Marketing skills	3.19	14	2.88	15
Human resource management	4.57	3.5	4.67	1
Leadership skills	4.55	5	4.44	5
Computer skills	4.76	1.5	4.53	2
Strategic planning skills	4.43	7	4.00	7
Conflict management skills	3.95	11	3.12	14
Public relations skills	4.38	8	4.50	3
Labor relations skills	3.57	13	3.67	10
Time management skills	4.76	1.5	4.17	6
Team building skills	4.48	6	3.83	9
Counseling skills	4.09	10	3.33	13
Writing skills	4.33	9	3.94	8

Response scale: 0 = no need; 5 = high need

Staff Development Participation

This section presents the data that compared perceptions between administrators who had participated in staff development activities and those who had not. Earlier results indicated that 19 out of 46 respondents had participated in formal professional development activities. The majority were those in higher-level positions.

Although the results of the t-test analyses on program objectives, policies and procedures, strategies and activities, and senior management did not reveal substantially high differences between the means for those who had participated and those who had not, the data reveal a number of impressions worth exploring.

Objectives. A cross tabulation of administrator responses concerning the eight objectives on the basis of those who had participated in staff/professional development and those who had not is presented in Table 41. The analyses reveal that, on average, the administrators who had participated in PD were either much more aware of and agreed more with the existence of the policies than did those who had not. The data show that percentage scores and the means for five of the eight objectives were higher for those who had attended than those who had not.

Overall, the results suggest that participation in staff development seems, on average, to have been a substantial influence on a more positive perspective and awareness with regard to program objectives compared to nonparticipation.

Organizational inputs. Table 42 presents the results of the analysis of all five organizational inputs on the basis of staff development participation. Although the means suggest that both groups somewhat agreed with the existence of the outcomes, the percentage scores revealed that, on average, the administrators who had not participated

Table 41

PD Objectives Based on Staff Participation

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. The university's definition of PD is clear to me	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	25.0 69.2		15.0 7.7		60.0 23.1		3.30 2.23	U D
2. The aims of PD of this university are clear to me	Yes (n=19) No (n=26)	26.3 65.4		15.8 3.8		57.9 30.8		3.37 2.46	U D
3. The activities that constitute PD are clear to me	Yes (n=19) No (n=26)	21.1 53.8		10.5 7.7		68.4 38.5		3.63 2.69	U U
4. The role of the university in the implementation of PD are clear to me	Yes (n=20) No (n=25)	30.0 72.0		15.0 4.0		55.0 24.0		3.25 2.32	U D
5. The expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the PD efforts at this university are clear to me	Yes (n=20) No (n=24)	45.0 62.0		25.0 16.7		30.0 20.8		2.75 2.42	U D
6. The objectives of the PD activities of this university keep changing to meet the changing requirements of the university	Yes (n=18) No (n=21)	50.0 71.4		22.2 14.3		27.8 14.3		2.72 2.24	U D
7. The PD initiatives at this university are to address the requirement of the institution	Yes (n=19) No (n=24)	15.8 58.3		10.5 -		73.7 41.7		3.74 2.83	U U
8. The PD initiatives at this university are to address the needs of the individual	Yes (n=19) No (n=24)	31.6 29.2		15.8 16.7		52.6 54.2		3.21 3.37	U U

A = Agree

U = Undecided

D = Disagree

Table 42

Presence of Organizational Input Based on Staff Participation in PD

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. Information and emerging issues on PD are communicated to administrative staff	Yes (n=19)	63.2		5.3		31.6		2.58	U
	No (n=25)	80.0		8.0		12.0		2.08	D
2. Resources are available to staff for practicing the new ideas and skills they have learned from PD	Yes (n=19)	78.9		15.8		5.3		2.16	D
	No (n=25)	80.0		8.0		12.0		2.00	D
3. The decision making structure of the university promotes implementation of the PD	Yes (n=20)	60.0		20.0		20.0		2.60	U
	No (n=24)	83.3		4.2		12.5		2.00	D
4. The university provides incentives/rewards for academic work undertaken relevant to one's administrative role	Yes (n=20)	30.0		5.0		65.0		3.50	A
	No (n=24)	54.2		12.5		33.3		2.58	U
5. The university provides rewards for work experience in other sectors	Yes (n=19)	47.4		21.1		31.6		2.79	U
	No (n=22)	86.4		-		13.6		1.95	D
A = Agree		U = Undecided		D = Disagree					

tended to disagree more than did those who had participated on the existence of organizational inputs at Moi University. The reverse was true for this assertion, because those who had participated tended to agree on the presence of organizational input more than did those who had not.

A further analysis of responses concerning outcomes (Table 43) and barriers (Table 44) also indicated that administrators who had participated in PD seemed to have agreed more than did those who had not on the existence of the outcomes and barriers.

Gender

Further analysis was carried out to compare responses for male and female administrators with respect to the characteristics of PD at the university. On the basis of gender, analyses on a number of key purposes of the study revealed no difference between the means for male and female respondents.

The results of the t-test analyses on program objectives, strategies and activities, organizational inputs, senior management input, current professional development needs, and preferred methods of PD delivery revealed no substantially high differences between the means for female and male respondents. The results of the above analyses are presented in Tables 45 and 46.

However, despite the high level of agreement, a number of general observations can be made. For instance, on average, based on the percentages, the female administrators tended to disagree more than agree compared to the male administrators with regard to the program objectives (Table 45).

Table 43

PD Outcomes Based ON Staff Participation in PD

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. Has stimulated learning among the administrators	Yes (n=20) No (n=24)	15.0 50.0		40.0 25.0		45.0 25.0		3.40 2.58	U U
2. Has increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration	Yes (n=20) No (n=22)	10.0 40.9		25.0 27.3		65.0 31.8		3.70 3.05	A U
3. Has increased confidence in staff in dealing with staff/students	Yes (n=20) No (n=21)	10.0 33.3		30.0 23.8		60.0 42.9		3.65 3.19	A U
4. Has improved administrative performance of staff	Yes (n=20) No (n=23)	5.0 47.8		40.0 21.7		55.0 30.4		3.65 2.83	A U
5. Has increased awareness of staff on the need for professional growth and continuing one's education	Yes (n=20) No (n=23)	15.0 34.8		30.0 17.4		55.0 47.8		3.55 3.22	A U
6. Has increased staff awareness of the socio-economic conditions that affect the university	Yes (n=20) No (n=23)	20.0 39.1		25.0 17.4		55.0 43.5		3.45 3.13	U U
7. Has provided staff with greater understanding of the university	Yes (n=19) No (n=25)	21.1 52.0		26.3 16.0		52.6 32.0		3.47 2.80	U U
8. Has enhanced team-work among administrative staff in pursuing university goals	Yes (n=20) No (n=25)	20.0 64.0		50.0 12.0		30.0 24.0		3.20 2.48	U U
9. Has increased job satisfaction among the administrators	Yes (n=19) No (n=26)	26.3 61.5		47.4 11.5		26.3 26.9		2.89 2.50	U U

(table continues)

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%	%	%	%	%	%		
10. Has increased interaction among staff in general	Yes (n=18)	33.3		44.4		22.2		2.83	U
	No (n=25)	56.0		16.0		28.0		2.68	U
11. Has prepared individual staff members for future positions and responsibilities in the university	Yes (n=20)	10.0		35.0		55.0		3.70	A
	No (n=24)	33.3		25.0		41.7		3.08	U
12. Has improved the professional status of administrators	Yes (n=19)	10.5		21.1		68.4		3.84	A
	No (n=25)	40.0		20.0		40.0		3.04	U
13. Has improved the image of the university within the community	Yes (n=18)	11.1		44.4		44.4		3.50	A
	No (n=22)	54.5		13.6		31.8		2.63	A

A = AgreeU = Undecided

A = Agree

U = Undecided

Table 44

Factors Likely to Impede PD Based on Staff Participation in PD

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. Inadequate communication/information on available PD opportunities in the University	Yes (n=20) No (n=24)	10.0 16.7		5.0 -		85.0 83.3		4.15 4.13	A A
2. The initiatives lack relevancy to the needs of the individual staff members	Yes (n=19) No (n=23)	31.6 34.8		21.1 13.0		47.4 52.2		3.26 3.26	U U
3. Lack of flexibility in the institution for administrators to venture on their own for development pro-grams	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	- 15.4		- -		100.0 84.6		4.50 4.19	A A
4. General staff indifference to the introduction of new ideas	Yes (n=19) No (n=25)	36.8 84.0		15.8 -		47.4 16.0		3.00 1.76	U D
5. Lack of time to participate in any form of training	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	55.0 69.2		10.0 -		35.0 30.8		2.75 2.31	U D
6. Too much emphasis is placed on organizational requirements	Yes (n=18) No (n=22)	22.2 31.8		22.2 9.1		55.6 59.1		3.50 3.45	U U
7. Insufficient budget for PD	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	10.0 11.5		5.0 -		85.0 88.5		4.45 4.31	SA A
8. Lack of human resources	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	60.0 50.0		5.0 -		35.0 50.0		2.55 2.88	U U
9. Lack of organizational support	Yes (n=20) No (n=26)	20.0 15.4		5.0 -		75.0 84.6		4.00 4.19	A A

(table continues)

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
10. Lack of guidance to administrators on the importance of PD	Yes (n=20)	25.0		20.0		55.0		3.50	A
	No (n=26)	34.6		7.7		57.7		3.42	U
11. Lack of incentive for administrators to pursue PD opportunities	Yes (n=20)	35.0		-		65.0		3.55	A
	No (n=26)	23.1		3.8		73.1		3.81	A
12. Not part of institutional planning	Yes (n=19)	42.1		5.3		52.6		3.26	U
	No (n=23)	21.7		8.7		69.6		3.78	A
13. Inactive PD office	Yes (n=19)	36.8		5.3		57.9		3.37	U
	No (n=25)	20.0		8.0		72.0		3.88	A
A = Agree	SA = Strongly/agree	U = Undecided		D = Disagree					

Table 45

PD Objectives Based on Gender

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. The university's definition of PD is clear to me	Male (n=31) Female (n=15)	48.4 53.3		16.1 -		35.5 46.7		2.71 2.67	U U
2. The aims of PD of this university are clear to me	Male (n=30) Female (n=15)	43.3 60.0		13.3 -		43.3 40.0		2.90 2.73	U U
3. The activities that constitute PD are clear to me	Male (n=30) Female (n=15)	36.7 46.7		13.3 -		50.0 53.3		3.10 3.07	U U
4. The role of the university in the implementation of PD are clear to me	Male (n=31) Female (n=14)	51.6 57.1		9.7 7.1		38.7 35.7		2.77 2.64	U U
5. The expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the PD efforts at this university are clear to me	Male (n=29) Female (n=15)	48.3 66.7		20.7 20.0		31.0 13.3		2.72 2.27	U U
6. The objectives of the PD of this university keep changing to meet the changing requirements of the university	Male (n=26) Female (n=13)	57.7 69.2		19.2 15.4		23.1 15.4		2.54 2.31	U U
7. The PD initiatives at this university are to address the requirement of the institution	Male (n=28) Female (n=15)	35.7 46.7		3.6 6.7		60.7 46.7		3.36 3.00	U U
8. The PD initiatives at this university are to address the needs of the individual	Male (n=28) Female (n=15)	25.0 40.0		21.4 6.7		53.6 53.3		3.43 3.07	U U

U = Undecided

Also, concerning organizational inputs, on average, based on the percentages, the female administrators tended to disagree more than did the male administrators on the presence of the organizational inputs (Table 46). One of the inputs worth commenting on relates to the notion that "*the decision-making structure of the university promotes the implementation of staff development initiatives at the university.*" In this regard more female administrators (93%) than males (63%) disagreed with the notion.

Further, with regard to policies, on average, the male administrators tended to agree on the presence of policies compared with the female administrators (Table 47).

Outcomes. With regard to outcomes, although the two groups moderately agreed on the existence of the outcomes, the males agreed more than did the female respondents (Table 48).

Another interesting result was the fact that in all of the outcomes, the numbers of female respondents who were undecided on most of them were higher than those of the male respondents. My speculation was that because the number of female administrators at high levels is quite low compared to males. Consequently, not many had had the opportunity to participate in PD.

A similar pattern was observed with regard to barriers, where both groups tended to agree more than disagree on the presence of the barriers. Of special importance was the notion of "*lack of time to participate,*" on which the female administrators agreed more than did the males on this assertion. Table 49 indicates that 53% of the female respondents perceived that there was a lack of time to participate compared to 23% of the male respondents. This to some degree corresponds with the notion that females in some African societies may be prevented by social roles (Mhehe, 2002) from participating in

Table 48

PD Outcomes Based on Gender

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
1. Has stimulated learning among the administrators	Male (n=29) Female (n=15)	27.6 46.7		31.0 33.3		41.4 20.0		3.10 2.67	U U
2. Has increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration	Male (n=27) Female (n=15)	22.2 33.3		18.5 40.0		59.3 26.7		3.59 2.93	A U
3. Has increased confidence in staff in dealing with staff/students	Male (n=26) Female (n=15)	19.2 26.7		23.1 33.3		57.7 40.0		3.58 3.13	A U
4. Has improved administrative performance of staff	Male (n=29) Female (n=14)	31.0 21.4		24.1 42.9		44.8 35.7		3.24 3.14	U U
5. Has increased awareness of staff on the need for professional growth and continuing one's education	Male (n=28) Female (n=15)	17.9 40.0		21.4 26.7		60.7 33.3		3.64 2.87	A U
6. Has increased staff awareness of the socioeconomic conditions that affect the university	Male (n=29) Female (n=14)	27.6 35.7		17.2 28.6		55.2 35.7		3.41 3.00	U U
7. Has provided staff with greater understanding of the university	Male (n=30) Female (n=14)	40.0 35.7		13.3 35.7		46.7 28.6		3.17 2.93	U U
8. Has enhanced team-work among administrative staff in pursuing university goals	Male (n=30) Female (n=15)	46.7 40.0		20.0 46.7		33.3 13.3		2.87 2.67	U U

(table continues)

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		%		%		%			
9. Has increased job satisfaction among the administrators	Male (n=30)	46.7		20.0		33.3		2.73	U
	Female (n=15)	46.7		40.0		13.3		2.53	U
10. Has increased interaction among staff in general	Male (n=30)	43.3		23.3		33.3		2.87	U
	Female (n=13)	53.8		38.5		7.7		2.46	U
11. Has prepared individual staff members for future positions and responsibilities in the university	Male (n=29)	20.7		24.1		55.2		3.48	A
	Female (n=15)	26.7		40.0		33.3		3.13	U
12. Has improved the professional status of administrators	Male (n=30)	30.0		16.7		53.3		3.37	U
	Female (n=14)	21.4		28.6		50.0		3.43	U
13. Has improved the image of the university within the community	Male (n=26)	38.5		19.2		42.3		3.08	U
	Female (n=14)	28.6		42.9		28.6		2.93	U

A = Agree

U = Undecided

Table 49

Factors Likely to Impede PD Based on Gender

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		f	%	f	%	f	%		
1. Inadequate communication/information on available PD opportunities in the University	Male (n=30)	1	3.3	1	3.3	28	93.3	4.50	A
	Female (n=14)	5	35.7	-	-	9	64.3	3.36	A
2. The initiatives lack relevancy to the needs of the individual staff members	Male (n=28)	6	21.4	5	17.9	17	60.7	3.61	A
	Female (n=14)	8	57.1	2	14.3	4	28.6	2.57	U
3. Lack of flexibility in the institution for administrators to venture on their own for development programs	Male (n=31)	2	6.5	-	-	29	93.5	4.42	A
	Female (n=15)	2	13.3	-	-	13	86.7	4.13	A
4. General staff indifference to the introduction of new ideas	Male (n=29)	20	69.0	2	6.9	7	24.1	2.14	D
	Female (n=15)	8	53.3	1	6.7	6	40.0	2.60	U
5. Lack of time to participate in any form of training	Male (n=31)	22	71.0	2	6.5	7	22.6	2.10	D
	Female (n=15)	7	46.7	-	-	8	53.3	3.33	U
6. Too much emphasis is placed on organizational requirements	Male (n=31)	9	33.3	4	14.8	14	51.9	3.30	U
	Female (n=15)	2	15.4	2	15.4	9	69.2	3.85	A
7. Insufficient budget for staff development	Male (n=31)	4	12.9	1	3.2	26	83.9	4.35	A
	Female (n=15)	1	6.7	-	-	14	93.3	4.40	A
8. Lack of human resources	Male (n=31)	19	61.3	-	-	12	38.7	2.61	U
	Female (n=15)	6	40.0	1	6.7	8	53.3	3.00	U

(table continues)

Items	Group	Strongly disagree or disagree 1 or 2		Undecided 3		Strongly agree or agree 4 or 5		Mean	Perception
		f	%	f	%	f	%		
9. Lack of organizational support	Male (n=31)	5	16.1	1	3.2	25	80.6	4.16	A
	Female (n=15)	3	20.0	-	-	12	80.0	4.00	A
10. Lack of guidance to administrators on the importance of PD	Male (n=31)	11	35.5	4	12.9	16	51.6	3.35	U
	Female (n=15)	3	20.0	2	13.3	10	66.7	3.67	A
11. Lack of incentive for administrators to pursue PD opportunities	Male (n=31)	8	25.8	1	3.2	22	71.0	3.74	A
	Female (n=15)	5	33.3	-	-	10	66.7	3.60	A
12. Not part of institutional planning	Male (n=29)	9	31.0	3	10.3	17	58.6	3.48	U
	Female (n=13)	4	30.8	-	-	9	69.2	3.69	A
13. Inactive PD office	Male (n=31)	9	29.0	2	6.5	20	64.5	3.65	A
	Female (n=13)	3	23.1	1	7.7	9	69.2	3.69	A
A = Agree	U = Undecided	D = Disagree							

many forms of formal self-development initiatives—especially if they have to leave their homes for an extended period of time.

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter the findings were presented and discussed along the four major purposes of the study.

Nature and Characteristics of PD

Some of the key findings regarding the nature of professional development and the perceptions of administrators concerning the form/type, policies, objectives and procedures, and strategy for implementation include:

1. Professional development initiatives existed in this university but had been ad hoc and sporadic.
2. The frequency of PD activities was pegged on the availability of funds.
3. The most commonly used PD forms/types are seminars, workshops, and further education.
4. Most PD activities were project or donor-supported initiatives.
5. A majority of administrators were familiar with PD policies and objectives.
6. The main beneficiaries of PD initiatives were those in the higher levels of administration.
7. Individual initiative was key to most staff members pursuing PD initiatives.
8. Senior management support was often limited to the granting of study leave and occasional fund solicitation.
9. Barriers noted were the absence of clear PD policy, a centralized coordinating office venue for PD activities, and the SDC being supportive of administrators.

10. Individual and institutional development was perceived to be the major objective of the PD initiatives.

Implementation

1. There seemed to be a gap between policy and practice: Although the centralization of authority was designed to regularize PD, the findings indicate that individuals pursued their own desires in terms of field of study.
2. Administrators sought approval for training but saw policies as superficial as they were often bypassed.
3. The SDC as a body in charge of PD approval and funding was perceived to be less supportive of administrator development because of its largely academic composition.
4. Implementation was hampered by lack of funds, lack of central training office, and lack of interest in administrator development by the senior managers.

Rationales

1. Most interview respondents perceived coping with change as the major rationale for PD activities.
2. The respondents also saw developing one's skills for future career enhancement as one the major rationales.
3. Individual and organizational developments as rationales for PD were moderately perceived to apply to the university.

Organizational Inputs

1. Although the university was seen to moderately provide monetary incentives for prior work experience and newly acquired academic qualification, overall, it was

perceived as not offering enough incentives to motivate, institutionalize, or encourage sustained PD initiatives.

2. Decision-making, communication, information regarding PD opportunities, resources and equipment, and implementation of new ideas were seen to be lacking as inputs into PD processes.

PD Needs

1. Human resource management, computer skills, and decision-making and time-management skills were found to be of high importance to roles as well as of high need for development.
2. Marketing, and financial skills were least perceived skills as important to role and for development.
3. Entrepreneurial skills were perceived as requiring higher need for development by the senior administrators than were the lower level administrators. This is speculated to be a result of the new directive for the universities to generate their own funds.

PD Delivery Method

1. In-country training in relevant institutions, out-of-country training, and seminars were perceived as the most preferred methods of delivering PD.
2. There seemed to be a gap between what was preferred and what was happening on the ground. Most administrators pursued higher education overseas than in-country or through seminars.

Outcomes

Overall, administrators perceived that PD activities had been largely hampered by a series of factors such as lack of resources, policies, evaluation, planning, and organizational support, which, consequently, had not added value to service delivery.

Facilitators

The respondents perceived the following as key facilitators: sufficient budgets, training office, policy, compensation/incentives, recognition, and in-house programs.

Impediments

1. Questionnaire respondents identified the following as key impediments: lack of financial resources, time, lack of organizational support, inadequate communication and information, and lack of incentives.
2. The interviewees identified a series of impediments that have been classified into economic, technical, attitudinal, administrative structure, planning, policy, and conceptualization.

Variables

With respect to comparing the different demographic variables and responses to the major purposes of the study, the findings reveal that there were more similarities in perceptions than there were differences. The analyses involved responses based on position levels, administration division, staff development participation and gender, age, experience, and academic qualification. There were, however, few specific observations concerning the variables.

Position Level

1. The "Position level" as a variable seemed to have been a factor influencing perceptions towards the various characteristics of the staff development initiatives as those in higher levels tended to view several aspects of PD differently from the lower level administrators.
2. The higher-level positions had higher means scores for almost all facets examined. Aidoo-Taylor (1986) had a similar view based on the fact that those who occupied higher positions in the organizational structure were more privy to information than were those on the lower levels. He noted that information available to staff depended more on one's position in the organization.

Administrative Division

1. Analyses based on the administrative division tended to present similarity in the perceptions of administrators regarding the objectives of the staff development initiatives.
2. A couple of opinions were stated more positively by the academic division than by the administration. I speculate that because most of the academic division administrators deal with large student numbers and varied issues, their development needs may focus more on counseling and conflict management than do those in central administration. However, one can speculate on the notion that the different roles performed, such as student services, may have accounted for more positive opinion.

PD Participation

With regard to staff participation, those who had participated in staff development initiatives agreed more with most of the characteristics than did those who had not. It was not a surprising result, considering that most of those who had participated in staff development initiatives were from the senior level in administration.

Gender

1. The results indicate a great number of similarities between male and female responses concerning all areas of study.
2. On average, based on percentage scores, the male respondents tended to agree more on the existence of the various items of study than did the female respondents.
3. Also, regarding preferred methods of PD delivery, and contrary to some studies that have suggested that in some societies, especially in the developing world, gender roles such as domestic influence preferred methods, the data indicated that both genders tended to reflect similar opinions.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, PERSONAL REFLECTIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter I provide, first, a brief review of the purpose and design of the study. Second, I outline the major findings and discuss them in light of what the literature led me to expect. Third, I present implications for theory, practice, and further research. In the fourth and final section I offer some conclusions and personal reflections.

Purpose of the Study

The overall purpose of the study was to explore the nature of the professional development programs and initiatives undertaken for Moi University's non-teaching administrators and the perceptions of these initiatives as held by administrators. The study focused on the following specific purposes: (a) to describe the demographics of the non-teaching administrators of the university, (b) to describe the professional development programs for administrators at Moi University, (c) to explore the nature of administrators' participation in professional development activities, (d) to explore the rationales for professional development at the university, (e) to explore the perceptions of administrators concerning professional development needs and preferred methods of program delivery, (f) to explore the perceptions of administrators concerning the outcomes of the professional development programs, and (g) to compare the responses to the questionnaire items based on the different demographic variables.

Conceptual Framework

Three theoretical orientations informed the theoretical and analytical framework of the study. The first two, the resource dependency model (Maasen & Gornitzka, 1999) and the open systems model (Hanson, 1996), provided the framework for understanding and comparing the relationships between external and internal dynamics of the institution as it engages in its professional development activities. According to the proponents of both models, the basic starting point is that decisions are made within the internal political context of the organization as part of its attempts to manipulate the environment to its advantage. They further contended that, rather than organizations being passive recipients of the environmental forces, both theories argue that organizations make strategic decisions about adapting to the environment. The Neo-Institutional theory, which sees organizations as being transported by various carriers such as cultures, structures and routines, also informed the framework. The conceptual framework (Figure 6) for this study adapted aspects of both the systems and resource dependency models.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study were collected using a questionnaire survey, interviews, and documentary sources. The data from the questionnaires were analyzed statistically to generate means scores, percentages, and rankings of aspects of the study. Included in the analysis were comparisons of the perceptions by administrators based on various respondent characteristics. The interviews were coded for themes, and content analysis was used for the documentary sources.

Major Findings and Discussion

The major findings of the study are summarized relative to the major purposes of the study.

Purpose #1: Describing the Demographics of Administrators at Moi University

The study attained a return rate of 85% (Tables 3 and 4), and all categories of administrative staff were fairly represented. The high rate of return for the study, in my opinion, reflects in some measure the respondents' great interest in professional development. It also provided a broad picture of the demographics of administrators at the university which the university could harness for PD planning and implementation. The importance of such demographics in organizations such as universities cannot be overemphasized. Guthrie and Schwoerer (1996) observed that one of the greatest challenges currently facing PD in institutions is "developing practices that are sensitive to the changing demographics" (p. 70). They contend that to implement effective staff development initiatives, the needs, attitudes, and aspirations of the workforce must be taken into consideration. As such, for organizations to reap the full benefit of staff and professional development, attention should be given to individual or group differences across career stages and the manner in which they perceive training programs and their beliefs about their training needs (Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1996). Further, according to Aidoo-Taylor (1986), understanding the characteristics of the human resources not only provides a road map for staff development planning in terms of resources and foci, but also serves as a guide for future needs.

Characteristics of Survey Sample

The administrator characteristics at this university reflect Kauffman's (1990), Rosser's (2001), Kashoki's (1984), and Scott's (1976, 1978) assessments of middle-level staff in higher educational institutions—that is, there is a tendency for mid-level staff to have more education and to be younger and more professional.

For Moi University the findings indicate that in terms of age the majority of administrators—over 80%—were between the ages of 31 and 50, 11% were 30 years or younger, and 7% were 51 years or older. This study's results were also somewhat reflective of the University of Alberta (1997) study that illustrated that the APOs ranged in age from 27 to 64 years of age, with a mean age of 49 years.

In terms of gender, the majority—34 (74%)—of the respondents were male and 12 (26%) were female administrators. This trend is reflective of most universities and formal organizations in Kenya and the East African region, where men hold the majority of senior and administrative positions (Abagi, 1999; Mhehe, 2002).

Becher (1999) observed that a growing number of organizations, especially of an educational nature, are moving towards a requirement for an all-graduate entry, particularly those at the end of the status ladder. The study findings indicate that the non-academic administrators in Moi University were relatively well educated, with over 93% having completed an undergraduate or graduate degree. Of special significance is the fact that a combined total of 48% of the respondents had completed graduate degrees. Among those with graduate degrees, 20 of the grand total of 46 (43.5%) had master's degrees, and three (6.5%) had doctoral degrees. This, too, is consistent with the University of Alberta (1997) APO study that showed that 79% of the respondents had completed an

undergraduate or graduate degrees. Both studies reaffirmed Rosser's (2001) assertion that administrators are growing more educated and professional.

In terms of hierarchical position, all of the Principal Administrative Officers had at least a master's degree, and five out of six (83%) Senior Administrative Officers who responded had completed at least a graduate degree. In general, educational qualifications corresponded with age and to a large extent the positions held—a majority of those who occupied higher positions were over 40. This relationship was not adequately addressed in the literature but was implied in Porter and Padley's (1982) hierarchy that highlights the various PD stages and foci across career span of administrators (see Chapter 2). They contended that senior administrators will have through their career span undergone a series of PD forms and approaches ranging from induction, in-service education, internal and external courses, further education, and visits among others. A similar trend was reported by the Cembrowski (1997) study of succession planning in a Canadian college where various forms of both formal and informal training programs have been instituted that enable staff to obtain higher credentials over a period of time. It is therefore expected that those joining the administrative ranks would not likely possess similar credentials.

In terms of experience, the data indicate that 63% of administrators had prior administrative service before joining the university, but it is important to note that their experiences and academic backgrounds were diverse—many had little or no knowledge of university structure and administration at the time of entry. The majority of those who joined university administration were from the school system. This is also consistent with the literature reports regarding the source of university administrators (Abagi, 1997; Amey, 1990; McDade, 1987; Rosser, 2001; Sifuna, 1997). They all pointed out that most

universities draw from among their faculty or the school system and that most of them lack basic tools to manage unique environments such as universities because they draw their knowledge and training from their previous sectors. Abagi (1997), Sifuna (1997), and UNESCO (1998) have argued that this phenomenon has bred inadequacy and accounts for institutional mismanagement and decline.

In terms of participation in professional development, 59% of the administrators reported that they had not, since joining the university, participated in any formal staff and professional development initiatives. On the other hand twenty respondents (41%) indicated that they had been granted time or study leave to pursue professional development over periods of time. An APO survey on learning needs at the University of Alberta (1997) revealed fairly similar results, indicating that the amount of time spent on PD activities was generally low.

At the time of the study, only 15% of the administrators were involved in professional development activities, compared to 85% who were not. Further, the data appear to suggest that administrative position seems to influence or determine the nature and rate of participation in formal PD activities. In this regard, three quarters of PAOs had while at Moi University participated in formal development initiatives, whereas one in seven of administrative assistants had not. Aidoo-Taylor (1986), who noted the same trend in a Canadian college, suggest that this phenomenon occurs largely because those in higher administrative echelons are more privy to information on training opportunities than are those in the lower cadres. Hence the Moi University findings indicate that the closer that one is to the decision-making centre, the higher the chances that one will access professional development opportunities.

A combination of possible factors that emerged in the study could account for this noticeable anomaly. First, it points indirectly to the notion that the levels of interest and participation in staff development at Moi University do not reflect so much the needs of the university as the desires of individual administrators. Second, it could also be attributed to the rewards and recognition system that compensates only formal programs with certification. Or third, it may be due to shortcomings in the university's approval policies and process, which probably make it difficult both to enrol in and to finance such programs through private or institutional resources. To correct this seeming anomaly, a number of interview respondents were of the opinion that in-house courses run by the university be offered, using university facilities and staff, which would not only be cost effective, but would also make them available to the majority without interfering with work schedules. Such in-house courses, according to them, could be scheduled around work time. Becher (1999) looked at the policy potential for university mid-career professionals through continuous professional development in British universities and advocated the same approach. He argued for faculty and administrators to create learning networks within the university where their expertise and problem-solving facilities could be made available for staff. Borrowing from Gear (1994), he stated:

Universities should among other things make available their expertise for formal professional education and informal learning alike through courses consultancies, databases and personal contacts. Here they are likely to collaborate with the professional bodies and organizations in assessing what needs to be provided, and evaluating the benefits. (p. 169)

Kashoki's (1994) study of the University of Zambia advocated a similar approach. He quoted the University of Zambia's Special Committee of the Staff Development Committee, which recommended the strengthening of the University of Zambia's

programs in the belief that it "would enable the University to train the majority of its staff locally instead of sending them for more costly studies abroad" (p. 157). Further, this finding mirrors that of Portey and Padley (1982), who reported that in a number of British universities the value and importance of internal development programs and policies have been recognized. They noted that already there are programs that make use of internal resources at little cost and are often instituted as part of the normal working arrangements.

Purpose #2: Forms and Characteristics of PD

Forms of Professional Development

One of the assumptions of the study was that the university had organized and well-developed staff and professional development programs for its administrators. My findings, however, indicate that professional development activities at the university were perceived to be limited and therefore also limited in the forms of PD utilized.

The findings from this study are consistent with the trend reported in the staff development literature in that the majority of universities employ seminars, workshops, and conferences as the leading form of professional development. Williams (1982), in the British University Staff Development Unit, Ikonwe (1984) in Nigeria schools, Aidoo-Taylor (1986) in a Canadian college, Prachongchit (1984) in a Thai university, and a host of others reported that seminars, workshops, and conferences are the most preferred and frequently used methods of professional development. Williams (1992) contended that within inservice, the most common forms of PD that is used by universities in training are seminars and workshops (p. 60). Other studies on extra-educational institutions, such as that of Gray (1997) on training practices in US state government agencies and Fiedler

(1996) on leadership training of industrial and organizational psychologists, found that seminars and workshops are not only the most-used form of professional development, but also the most effective in furthering future careers.

The second highest form used according to the study was "further education," which was mostly undertaken outside the country. Kashoki (1994), in his study of the staff development programs in the University of Zambia, found a similar trend. This was not restricted to administrators but offered to faculty and subordinate staff as well.

Commenting on administrative staff, he stated:

Even the administrative staff have demonstrated a predilection for academic rather than practical training, the general belief being that academic qualifications through further education are the best launching pad to assured promotion or career advancement. Thus the records show that a fair number of the members of the administrative staff, particularly in the registrar's department have at least a Bachelors degree. (p. 155)

He further commented, "In all instances much of the training has been undertaken abroad and only in a few instances at home" (p. 155).

Other forms of professional development employed at Moi University include the Management Exposure Programs for senior management, which have the objective of introducing new ways of thinking adopted from foreign universities visited to the home university. Kashoki (1994) reported similar initiatives with similar objectives at the University of Zambia, where senior university administrators are "sent out on short-term tours or attendance at meetings of heads of universities under the auspices of the Association of African Universities" (p. 156). Kashoki contended that these opportunities, "apart from promoting professional and collegial contacts, act as sources of valuable information and exchange of tested experiences" (p. 156). Thus they "put heads of institutions that attend on road to possible innovative initiatives as well as strengthen

managerial capabilities" (p. 156). The findings also reveal that the institution was already designing a staff development policy that identified 10 different forms of professional development activities that it intended to offer to staff. These forms of PD mirror what Schwartz and Bryan (1998) found regarding practices in colleges and universities—that the most common form of professional development was formal training, which he characterized as "active, intentional training or education such as specific workshops, or designed learning opportunities, often for credit or continuing education" (p. 9). A further look at the forms of PD at Moi University based on Caffarella and Zinn's (1999) classification levels indicates that PD happened largely at the individual level, rather than at the initiative of the organization, department, group, or professional organization level.

One of the least-used and unappreciated forms of PD at Moi University was job rotation (Table 17). Web and Norton (1999) supported this finding that unlike industry, where job rotation has experienced success in rotating employees and managers to various positions to enhance organizational effectiveness, education has not generally endorsed the practice. They noted that the "disruptive effect" of the process has tended to slow down its acceptance and suggested that the trend currently is to tie rotation to personal competency and to where such skill is required. This finding of the study, however, is in contrast with Cembrowski's (1997) study of succession planning management in one Canadian institution, in which job rotation was ranked highly by the respondents as a strategy for preparing management staff for other positions in the organization. Other writers, such as Hall (1986) and Walker (1992), also agreed on the importance of job rotation as a means of enhancing development and skills. As a matter of fact, Walker pointed to its importance because of the fact that in many organizations

vertical movement is usually restricted, and job rotation stands as an important vehicle for development.

Staff Participation

In my study the majority of administrators (59%) had not participated in any formal activities since joining the university. Among the major factors identified as influencing participation were the following: funding: (Ajayi, et al, 1996; Casetter, 1996, Castetter & Young, 2004; Mwiria, 1992); venue or locus (Castetter, 1996; Kashoki, 1994; Paddock, 1997); personal drive (Paddock, 1997); program foci (Webb & Norton, 1999); and chance (Aidoo Taylor, 1984; Cembrowski, 1997).

The data reveal that, although the university had initiated a series of PD initiatives for administrators, these, as in many universities, were largely sporadic, uncoordinated, and infrequent (Becher, 1999; Cannon, 2000; Ikonwe, 1984; Kashoki, 1994; UNESCO, 1998; Williams, 1992). The UNESCO (1998), report stated in part that,

when one reviews the position with regard to continuous professional development for managerial and administrative staff in institutions, there are some striking international examples. . . . But in general, the picture is of an ad hoc spasmodic response to the problem of providing adequate management development. (p. 11)

Becher (1999) also stated that a few universities in Britain have become substantially involved in providing for the learning needs of mid-career administrative professionals, and where they exist, they are seen to be limited and predominantly ad hoc and individualistic rather than systematic and collective (p. 157). Similarly, Kashoki reported on a special committee assessment of the University of Zambia that observed that unless human resource development was taken seriously, the training and development in the university would continue to be haphazard (p. 157).

The irregular participation identified in this study largely mirrors the results of the APO study at the University of Alberta (1998), where 60% of the APOs had spent less than 26 hours in one year on formal PD and 59% on informal development over the same period of time. Although these findings regarding the inconsistency of programs are generally consistent across investigations, for the same categories of staff, the underlying causes may vary. In the Kenyan situation most activities are donor dependent, whereas the University of Alberta study suggested insufficient time and inadequate financial budgeting for training of APOs by the university. The British University Staff Development and Training Unit also reported that professional development generally was delivered on an ad hoc basis (Williams, 1982). Williams also pointed out that the provision of staff development for university administrators and teachers was ad hoc, patchy, and had little rationale and underpinning. Prachongchit (1984) reported similar findings for a Thai University. In this regard, the results from Moi University were not unusual.

The study further revealed that the majority of the PD initiatives at Moi University was undertaken off-campus. Although this was in contrast with Castetter's (1996, 2004) assertion that the most widely employed setting for personnel development programs in educational institutions is on the job, this finding mirror's Kashoki (1994) study of the University of Zambia. He reported that virtually all development initiatives were undertaken either off-campus or overseas.

Fundings. The forms of PD as reported in many universities were to a great degree influenced by funding trends (Abagi, 1999; Ajayi, et al, 1996; Koech, 1999; UNESCO, 1998). My findings indicate that funding for staff and professional

development was less than steady and sufficient. Its insufficiency seems to have led to the adoption by administrators of what Paddock (1997) termed a "survival mentality"—training, at all costs, through individual initiatives. The data reveal that the majority of the long-term development programs had been donor-funded or were provided through linkages with other foreign universities. Cannon (2000) identified the same trend in Indonesian universities.

In Kenyan universities the bulk of the funding came from government allocations to the university—which made it difficult to plan, as Mwiria (1992) observed, because the funds fluctuate on a monthly basis. It is in this regard that the resource dependency theory (Maasen & Gornitzka, 1999) applies significantly to the study findings. Paddock (1997), in his study of benchmarks in management training inservice and educational institutions, noted that the stability of financial support allows programs to grow in numbers and their curricula and to take calculated risks that lead to program improvement. He stated that lack of stability creates a "survival mentality" that leads to diminished administrative risk taking, less belief in the long-term benefits of training, and less credibility to attract and retain participants. He argued that stability is measured in terms of available fiscal resources, administrative planning for program promotion, links to professional associations, and formal recognition of participant achievement. In keeping with this picture in the literature, my study findings indicate a lack of stability, which is largely a result of extreme resource dependency and insufficiency. This phenomenon was expected to rise as funding from some of the major funding and donor agencies were expected to dwindle. A recent appraisal of the state of cooperation between Moi University and MHO stated:

Due to recent changes between the Dutch development towards Kenya, the three new initiatives have been put on hold. There is no certainty at the moment whether these projects will be accepted for further funding. NUFFIC have advised that the university wait for official communication on the fate of these projects. (MHO-Moi University, 1999, p. 6)

PD, which was a major component of the project for both administrative and faculty staff, was put in a state of financial uncertainty.

Chance. My respondents indicated that a sizable number of administrators had participated in PD through mere chance. They acknowledged the lack of planned or long-term initiatives from the university, and some administrators often had found themselves being asked to participate in PD activity in place of someone who for some reason was unable to do so. This phenomenon, according to Hall (1986), occurs when an organization fails to integrate learning as an inherent part of the organizational culture. Cembrowski (1997) and Miner and Estler (1985) observed similar trends. Cembrowski studied succession planning for management staff at a Western Canadian institute, where a number of respondents attributed their career development to a "*luck factor*" or "*being in the right place at the right time.*"

Perceptions Concerning PD Objectives

Forbrum and Devanna (1984) argued that PD objectives have to be incorporated in training and development experiences consistent with institutional visions. My findings suggest that objectives for staff and professional development were diverse though not clearly spelled out in any particular document nor hinged to any stated institutional vision. The diversity in objectives is underscored in the staff development literature (Schwartz & Bryan, 1998; UNESCO, 1998; Zuber Skerritt, 1995). Although the questionnaire data indicate that the administrators perceived the objectives to address

both individual and institutional requirements, the interview respondents perceived that, in practice, the PD initiatives were largely to meet individual professional and educational desires, rendering the institutional needs secondary. This finding is supported by the fact that self-initiative as reported in literature is the driving factor in participation, which is a practice contrary to expectations held by the majority upon entering university administration (Amey, 1990, p. 82). According to Amey, most of the administrators' expectations for training upon entry into university administration are often unmatched with reality, prompting them to venture out on their own. In other words, reality does not match expectations, a situation created by a lack of the organization's objectives for staff development.

The findings further indicate that although individual development was critical to administrators, their expectations and individual roles in the development were less clear to them. Barnes (1984) explored this situation and asserted that in every PD process, "staff should know their place in the scheme and have proper understanding of their value to it. . . . They should be assured of their purpose . . . and their role in achieving the institution's objectives appreciated" (p. 139). The lack of clarity on their roles and expectations were to a large extent a product of the ad hoc and irregular nature of PD. The interview data reveal that a lack of guidelines or policy encouraged different approaches to obtaining PD opportunities. In other words, each individual's experiences in the PD process were different. This reflects Bailey's (1991) observation that such "series of single and unconnected training events" (p. 47) express a lack of objectives and do not promote long-term growth in individuals and the organization.

In terms of specific objectives and aims of the PD initiatives at Moi University, the study identified several, most of which were from interview discussions. In this regard, the study revealed that specific programs were geared towards specific objectives. For instance, the MEPs, which were MHO-sponsored programs, were to train staff in the administration of central services and for management exposure (McDade, 1987). Workshops were also geared towards specific administrative issues (Cannon, 1981; Schwartz & Bryan, 1998). Other objectives were to enable staff to function with new technology (Ajayi, et al, 1996; Middlehurst, 1991; UNESCO, 1998), to motivate other staff (Cowan, 1997; Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999; Webb & Norton, 1999; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995), to help staff cope with change (Webb & Norton, 1999), to encourage career progression (McDade, 1989; Rosser, 2001), to improve services to students and staff, and to acquire further education and personal development for career success (Schwartz & Bryan, 1998).

Comparisons between subgroups. In terms of administrative levels, the findings indicate that the PAOs (in a senior position) perceived the objectives and definition of staff development as much clearer than did the lower cadres of administrators. The majority (five out of eight) of the items listed had means higher for the PAOs than for the other lower levels. This suggests that, overall, the higher administrative hierarchy was either more conversant with the aims or agreed with them more than did those at the lower levels.

The findings also indicate that administrators who had participated in professional development initiatives were more conversant with the objectives than were those who had not. Those who had participated reported a higher level of clarity in objectives,

awareness, aims, activities, role of the university, and foci of professional development than did those who had not. I speculate that these perceptions were influenced by the fact that most senior administrators had participated much more than did the lower levels, and hence were more conversant with objectives.

Perceptions Concerning PD Policies

The staff development literature indicated a trend in which administrator development is increasingly becoming involved in initiating and developing policy for PD (Aidoo-Taylor, 1986; Barnes, 1984; Becher, 1999; Castetter, 2004; UNESCO, 1998). The study findings indicate a lack of established written policies on PD beyond the few clauses in the terms of service document. Castetter, arguing for the need for a system policy, stated that written policies provide administrators and staff with the authority needed to establish overall plans for personnel development. He contended that "a policy statement is needed to formalize and crystallize system intent toward staff development and to create a climate in which realistic plans can be developed to meet organizational needs" (p. 240). Barnes also asserted that a coherent staff development policy related to the university's "corporate vision" is "instrumental in the attainment of its aims and objectives" (p. 139).

The findings further suggest that the absence of coherent policies largely accounted for the many barriers experienced by staff in pursuit of PD, because there was no framework to guide the entire process. These findings are consistent with those of many studies and reports that revealed that a large cross section of higher education institutions lack articulate and consistent policies on staff development. A study by Abagi (1999) on resource allocation in two Kenyan public universities reflected similar results

with regard to administrator training, misplacement, and underutilization. He reported that in both the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University, most administrators seemed to be underemployed or were performing duties that were unrelated to their qualifications. He further found that the underutilization of university staff and wastage of talent were more acute among nonteaching staff (p. 13). According to him, the levels of overstaffing in some administration sections were evident. Also, most of the administrators were overqualified for the jobs they were doing or were in the wrong position. All of these were, according to Abagi, related to a lack of policies related to both staff development and needs analysis. Further, UNESCO (1998) reported that although some studies have shown a steady rise in programs and policies in North America, Britain, and Australia, other studies have depicted a great deficiency in staff development program policies in Africa and Latin America. The above evidence suggests that in the past, policies on staff development have not received the attention they deserve in institutions of higher learning. However, based on the recent reports and initiatives by the Association of African Universities (AAU) and UNESCO, a number of initiatives have been instituted to remedy the situation (UNESCO/AAU, 1998). At the time of the current study, Moi University was in the process of drawing up a policy document.

Comparisons of perceptions among groups. This study reveals high levels of awareness of policies across all administrative levels (PAOs—100%, SAOs/AOs—87%, and SAAs/AAs—90%). A significant comparison relates to the fact that the PAOs perceived the use of salary increase (monetary reward) as a characteristic of the activities at the university more than did the lower levels of administration. Again, this may have been influenced by the fact that the PAOs had participated in PD more and had benefited

financially more than had the lower levels. However, there was a great degree of similarity in perception with regard to the other variables.

PD Strategies and Implementation

The study findings revealed a lack of a central office with full authority to plan, process, make decisions, or design PD strategies. Many respondents saw the lack of such an office as a major cause of the limitations of PD initiatives. Castetter (2004) recommended that every staff development initiative be created, organized, planned, and directed within the context of what might be referred to as a *comprehensive* plan. He added that this should entail strategies such as "program content, methods, setting, participation and resources" (p. 248). The findings indicate that such strategies did not exist. Instead the strategies adopted by the university were to encourage individual initiative while backing these efforts with funding, study leave, and monetary incentives. Similar trends were observed by Aidoo-Taylor (1986) study of a Canadian college and Cannon (2001) for Indonesian experience. To legitimize the process, Moi University used the Staff Development Committee as a formal approval organ for staff development.

The establishment of linkages between universities and foreign agencies, especially for funding purposes, was seen as the mainstay for longer and more expensive initiatives such as overseas training. Because donor funds or grants from linkages were not stable in terms of consistent flow of resources, it was difficult to associate such a phenomenon as a strategy (Paddock, 1997), but rather as an opportunity. The participants linked the lack of planning to the lack of financial resources. One respondent noted that to talk about staff development was essentially to talk about money. Many researchers contended that adequate resources must back up any form of planning for it to be feasible

(DEA, 1999; Farrant & Afonso, 1997; Mwiria, 1992; OECD, 1998; Owako, 1999).

Mwiria asserted that long-term strategic planning in Kenya had proved virtually impossible because government funding fluctuates on a monthly basis.

An important finding regarding policy implications with regard to PD strategies is the fact that the university is endowed with skilled and well-trained human resources, but they are underutilized or untapped for program implementation. Cannon (2001) reported a similar situation in an Indonesian study on the impact of training and education. He noted that despite the apparently carefully conceived programs offered in a number of Indonesian institutions, there is in general "relatively little attention being given to maximize the impact of training for the re-entry of trainees or designing learning-maintenance and institutional change systems linked to that training" (p. 115).

Comparisons between groups. The study revealed that the PAOs scored higher in all strategies in terms of percentage than did the lower cadre. This may also be attributed to the fact that the majority of the PAOs had attended a greater number of development initiatives than had the lower cadre. There was, however, a large degree of similarity in perception with regard to other demographic variables in terms of strategy.

Purpose #3: Rationales

Rationales for PD Activities

Various rationales for PD were identified through the interview, documentary, and questionnaire data responses, most of which have been reported in various staff development literature sources for educational institutions. The findings indicate that rationales largely revolved around individual and institutional development needs aspects, response to the uniqueness of university administrator roles, university functions,

and the changes experienced in all aspects of the university's internal and external environments (Abagi, 1999; Ajayi, 1996; Barnes, 1984; Cohen, 1974; Johnsrud and Rosser, 1999; Rosser, 2001; UNESCO, 1998; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995).

Although the questionnaire respondents perceived individual and institutional development as least applicable as PD rationales at Moi University, a number of interview respondents as well as documentary sources identified them as key rationales. Whereas the interview respondents reckoned that universities in Kenya operated under unique circumstances, the findings indicate that they compare with many regions as reflected in the literature.

Change management. A key rationale for PD discussed at length by interview respondents including the senior administrator was that of PD as a tool to institute and manage change in the university sector, both locally and globally. Implicit in this rationale is the notion of institutional development through the acquisition of various skills by administrators to be used to manage and respond to change (Cannon, 2001; Middlehurst, 1991; UNESCO, 1998). In spite of the PD objectives and the skills acquired from PD initiatives, the data from my study indicate that the PD outcomes did not reflect adequate response to or in themselves institute change. Because the university did not have clear development objectives, the impact and outcomes of PD are not clearly established. Cannon, in examining Australia's role in the funding of Indonesia's training in higher education, observed similar outcomes. He noted that despite Australia's commitment of substantial resources over a period of time, the investment has not brought about both the intended change and the intended sustainable systematic change. Interestingly, although technological changes were evident in the university (based on

interview data), the response to this change by the administrators was very low. This runs contrary to Castetter's (2004) assertion that technological advances have changed the way that educational organizations conduct business because of the fact that the majority have incorporated these advances into their operations and that these incorporations have required extensive development activity on the part of the organization to change the attitudes and skills of employees. With this widely perceived belief, one would expect that with the increase in students and faculty, together with the fact that computers have replaced typewriters, computer training would have been a high priority for all. Instead, I found that the majority of administrators attended seminars and workshops unrelated to computer skills and that those who attended longer programs focused on human resource management and other institutional management courses. This study indicated that a majority of the interview respondents felt that this was brought about by the lack of coherent institutional objectives and the ad hoc nature of PD initiatives. This perception further supports Barnes' (1984) comments on staff development and training in the climate of change that "the skills required in developing administrative abilities of a new order cannot be met through a series of ad hoc training programs" (p. 139). Barley and Brathwaite (1980) also found the relationship between staff development programs and educational change to be weak, because most programs lack coordination and clearly defined goals and objectives.

Personal development and career success. The majority of respondents saw personal development for career success as a major rationale for PD. The questionnaire data as well as interviews overwhelmingly reflect this tendency. This rationale was shared by Hall (1986), who stated that "of all the qualities necessary for executive

success, the capacity for personal learning is probably the most important" (p. 256). It was the respondents' opinion that personal development is imperative because it not only accords them the opportunity to learn new technical, human, and conceptual skills; but it also likely widens their horizon in terms of acquiring different positions within or outside the university (Aidoo-Taylor, 1986; Kashoki, 1994). One of the indicators for this assertion was the fact that a number of administrators were pursuing higher education in fields other than those directly related to university administration.

Reorientation. A senior administrator pointed to the need to reorient administrators whose administrative backgrounds were not in the university system. He argued that the majority of the administrative staff were professional administrators and lacked adequate preparation to handle university management. This rationale mirrors that of both Abagi (1997) and Sifuna (1997), who observed that administrators in Kenya's most public university entering middle-level administration come from the school system or are employed directly from universities after attaining their first degree. They further noted that the majority of those entering senior management often come from the faculty (teaching staff) and from various fields of study. Consequently, there is a need for PD activities for both lower and senior management to be relevant to the system. It was partly because of this rationale that management exposure was instituted for the senior management. Commenting on the Zambian experience, Kashoki (1994) wrote:

A general characteristic of this situation is that the executive heads of the university, their deputies and their academic, and administrative staff on first appointment are thrown with little or no preparation, into the deep end of the swimming pool and left entirely on their own devices for survival. Instead of benefiting from appropriate managerial courses specifically tailored to their needs, they are left to sink or swim, as they will. (p. 157)

PD Activities and Senior Management

The findings with regard to senior managerial support for PD have had mixed perceptions. Guthrie and Schwoerer (1996) suggested that perceived managerial support might influence attitudes towards training and development. Based on this principle, leadership support for professional development was explored in the APO study at the University of Alberta (1997). In the APO study, key senior university managers were included in the process with the idea that it was necessary if any staff development initiatives were to succeed. The majority of the PAOs were of the opinion that the senior management were fully engaged, whereas those in the lower levels felt otherwise. The perception held by the PAOs were related to the fact that the senior management had been responsible for granting study leave, approving funding, soliciting for scholarship, and encouraging individual initiatives for development. Aidoo-Taylor (1986) reported that most staff development committees, including those in the college he studied in Western Canada, carry out similar tasks. For Moi University, even though the Staff Development Committee and senior management were responsible for approving a number of staff development undertakings by administrators, individual administrators were given the opportunity to determine their own development areas and pursue them. Most interviewees, however, perceived this approach as encouraging individual development and little encouragement in terms of institutional development.

The statistical findings in Tables 5 and 13 present a scenario for senior management with important implications for professional development. For instance, the fact that 57% of administrators had not undertaken any development initiatives over the last few years means that the university's senior management ought to think seriously of

alternative ways to provide their staff with new skills and knowledge for effective service in administration. It is especially critical because most of those who had not participated were in the lower ranks of administration, and yet their roles were predominantly to implement policies

In terms of initiating and promoting the existing staff development initiatives, the role of senior management was seen to be minimal. The administrative staff perceived that individuals carry the bulk of the responsibility for self-development. The data indicate that 63% of the administrators surveyed supported this view. Included in this regard is the perceived role of the Staff Development Committee, which, by virtue of its being dominated by academic staff members, is perceived to give priority to academic staff at the expense of administrators. A number of those interviewed credited their training to specific conditions of the donors linking funding to specific programs and groups such as administrators. Administrators have largely been accommodated in that way. However, the study by Prachongchit (1984) of a Thai University for both faculty and administrative staff provide divergent result. According to his findings, the top executives from each campus satellite were responsible for faculty and administrative development. He further noted that the majority of faculty and administrative staff preferred senior management—the level of presidents and vice presidents to assume responsibility for the staff development (p. 76).

The findings from the interviews show that the lack of a collaborative approach to staff and professional development can be attributed to the organizational structure and to the fact that there are different centres of authority that seem to influence participation in staff development. Harman (1989), in commenting on universities as bureaucracies,

acknowledged that the bureaucratic model does not explain adequately where the locus of power and authority lies in universities. This has resulted in faculty-administrator conflict that has often played out in Staff development Committees. One respondent indicated that *"a number of approvals for study leave were done outside the Staff Development Committee and only get taken to the committee to formally ratify after the fact."*

Similarly, in areas related to work environment, this study indicated that the senior management invested little in motivating administrators to perform in their role vis-à-vis their newly acquired skills. In other words, the environment that they left and to which they returned did not accord them an opportunity to develop and contribute professionally (Abagi, 1999). This was observed by Tennant (1999; as cited in Cannon, 2001), who contended that the work environments had important influences on how the training was perceived and on how this is then applied to professional situations. He argued that through planning, senior management "can play a major part in preparing their staff to reap maximum benefit by encouraging staff to link their training with goals and needs of the institutions" (p. 114). Cannon's (2001) Indonesian study revealed that participants were encouraged by less than two thirds of the supervisors. He suggested that most senior administrators and supervisors in educational institutions "may not be aware of their role in offering active support for trainees and staff, hence improving the overall effectiveness of training" (p. 114).

In a comparison of the various subgroups, 50% of the PAOs perceived the senior management as encouraging staff development, compared to 11% of AAs. PD participation may account for this perception because of the fact that the majority of the PAOs had participated compared to the AAs. Similarities in perception were evident for

the rest of the variables. Analysis of other variables did not reveal a substantial difference in perception regarding the role of senior management.

PD Activities and Organizational Inputs

A wide range of researchers in the literature maintained that sustainable outcomes are not simply dependent on providing more training (Cannon, 2001), but are affected by the way that training and development are linked to other institutional infrastructure development, leadership management, and links with industry and broader society (Cannon, 2001; UNESCO, 1998; Webb & Norton, 1999). The findings suggest that the university's inputs into the professional development initiative were minimal. A significant finding in this regard is the fact that the organizational structure from which these inputs emanate was perceived to be unfavourable for the implementation of professional development initiatives—especially to lower levels of administration. The perceived lack of participation by the senior management in administrator development, lack of adequate resources, uncoordinated information and communication, and minimal incentives imply that organizational inputs were minimal.

Most respondents in the higher positions tended to perceive the monetary incentive for academic work achieved and prior work experience as the only tangible input that encourages professional development at the university. Aidoo-Taylor (1986) also observed similar opinions from faculty members in his study of a Canadian college. He noted that it was because of the monetary adjustments that a number endeavoured to obtain higher academic degrees. Castetter (2004) also reported the common use of growth and experience incentives in North American schools, where teachers' base salaries are raised according to additional educational credentials. He observed that this

form of competency-based pay compensation is weak because it assumes that that additional education increases competence on the job. He further observed that this system has inevitably "rewarded teachers and administrators for taking courses that may have little or nothing to do with the knowledge and skill set needed by the organization" (p. 216).

A large percentage of respondents to the survey, as supported by comments from the interviewees, perceived the university as being weak in the dissemination of information and communication regarding professional development opportunities. A large body of literature has indicated the centrality of information flow within an organization. Young & Castetter (2004) observed that with units in educational organizations becoming more sophisticated, the demand for more and varied types of information has increased. Interview respondents who felt the need for a more consistent flow of information using diverse means echoed these sentiments.

In terms of subgroups, the data indicate that there was a high degree of similarity in the perceptions of organizational inputs. One major variation was with administrators occupying higher positions, who held the view that the *"university provided more rewards for work experience in other sectors than did the lower levels of administrators."* This variation in perception could be attributed to the fact that more of the higher-level administrators had worked elsewhere before joining the university, whereas a sizable number of the lower-level administrators had joined the university as first employer. A similar perception was held by those who had participated in professional development activities compared to those who had not.

Purpose # 4: PD Needs and Methods Delivery

Professional Development Needs

Contrary to Castetter's (2004) assertion that the initial step in every development process is diagnosing development needs, the findings of my study indicate that both individual needs and institutional needs assessments were not formally done before staff development initiatives were carried out. The data (Table 22) indicate that not a single respondent (0%) perceived either of the two processes as fully responsible for any staff development initiatives. The data indicate that 54.3% (for individual) and 45.7% (for institutional) of respondents perceived the processes as not being responsible for staff development initiatives at all. Similar trends exist at the University of Zambia. Kashoki (1994) observed that the university did not perform any form of analysis to determine the needs of the staff as well as the university. He stated, "There is a complete absence of projections regarding the numbers of people to be trained, in what fields, at what level, and for what purposes" (p. 157).

The findings further reveal that despite the lack of previous formal needs assessment, there was a high degree of similarity between skills important to their roles and skill areas desired for development. Table 27 revealed four skill areas—human resources management, computer skills, time management, and decision-making skills—as most important to administrative roles and areas in which administrators need to develop.

Although the above data are based on the overall survey population, they indicate that there were fairly high similarities in the subgroups. There were contrasting perceptions in few instances. For example, the PAOs perceived a higher need for and the

importance of "marketing," "strategic planning," and "financial skills" than did the lower levels. This may be role related because it suggests that these skills are part of the day-to-day activities of those at the senior level (Porter & Padley, 1982). This result somewhat reflects the findings of a similar study by Brown, Boyle, and Boyle (2001) with school heads and heads of department in British schools. The study found a remarkable degree of congruence between several schools where the majority of heads perceived as great the need to develop in strategic planning and financial and budgetary planning. Earlier studies by Olroyd and Hall (1991; as cited in Brown et al., 2001) reflect similar needs.

Also, those in the academic division perceived a higher need and importance for "counselling" and "conflict management" than did those in the administration division. Again, this may be speculated along the lines of the role performed, in that administrators in the academic division come into contact with a large number of students and staff, and the potential for conflict and need for counselling students is much higher than it is in central administration. The dire need for guidance and counselling was acknowledged by the Koech (1999) in a report on the state of Kenyan education that indicated that there were rising cases of student harassment, especially affecting women, excessive alcohol consumption, drug abuse, and other social vices in all Kenyan universities and other institutions of learning. A key recommendation of the report was the "creation or strengthening of a guidance and counselling service in all institutions to ensure that students received preventive counselling, as opposed to the mere creation of offices where students with problems may wish to report" (p. 178).

This finding further adds to the fact that there is a need to differentiate between the professional development needs of different groups of people based on their level of

position in the administrative hierarchy (stages in career) and their current roles. Guthrie and Schwoerer (1996) explored the linkage between career stages with the self-perceived need for training and provided a framework for possible observed results with regard to the differences in perception between the levels of administration. In this study they found (a) a strong association between age/career stage in terms of less need by senior administrators for training in basic management areas, human resources development, writing, and communication and technical skills; and (b) later career stages viewing lifelong training as having less utility. This may also explain why senior administrators (PAOs) preferred short, seminar types of initiatives more than did lower-level administrators (AAs), who preferred long courses.

Preferred Development Methods

The findings indicate that the four most preferred methods of staff development were (a) in-country training at a relevant institution; (b) out-of-country training; (c) conferences, seminars, and workshops, and (d) in-house training. The least preferred were visits, self-study, and mentorship.

The study findings also reveal that the PAOs preferred seminars and workshops, whereas the lower-level administrators preferred longer programs—mainly in-country training and out-of-country training. Similarly, the PAOs ranked “visits” as second-highest preferred method, and the SAAs and AAs ranked them as the seventh and second least preferred method, respectively. All groups least preferred mentors. The above data (also reported elsewhere in this study) as well as interview information reflect the participants’ desire for self-improvement educationally for future career purposes.

The above findings indicate that individual as well as group differentiation needs to be taken into consideration when planning for programs (Young & Castetter, 2004). There seemed to exist a tendency for the senior administrators to prefer short-term types of initiatives compared to the lower cadre, who preferred long certificate/degree types of programs (Kashoki, 1994). Perhaps of particular importance is the fact that the interview respondents indicated that their preference for formal programs with certificates was based on the fact that monetary rewards were associated with successful completion as provided for in the terms of service (Aidoo Taylor, 1994) as well as increased chances for career progression (Kashoki, 1994).

The findings further indicate that mentors and visits were considered less preferable as means of PD. This again runs counter to Cembrowski's (1997) findings, in which these forms were considered highly as means for PD and enhancing career development and succession (p. 96). She cited Summers-Ewing (1994), who contended that mentorship involved developing trust between individuals at different levels of experience and that counselling and friendships played a role in career and relationship development. Although Cembrowski reported the existence of the strategy, the interview respondents in this study reported that mentorship was not at all used at the university. Counter to this assertion, Greenaway and Derek (1979), in contrasting staff development strategies of administrators with those of faculty, argued that teamwork is a norm in administration compared with faculty, in whom individual expertise is standard. Therefore, "it could be argued that that there is little need for the identification of a 'senior colleague' to act as mentor because the situation is impossible to avoid" (p. 72). The issue of mentorship in administration arises because of the nature of the structure.

My speculation on the lack of the above methods is that the administrators did not perceive that they constitute credible forms of PD. Consequently, there is a conceptual gap leading to a lack of recognition of these strategies. It could also be as a result of the notion that administrators tend to personalize offices to the exclusion of everybody else in terms of what they do.

Purpose #5: Outcomes, Barriers, and Facilitating Factors

Perceived Outcomes

The staff development literature pointed out that in most institutions it is often difficult to establish staff development outcomes, because "effects on training are arbitrary and all too often dependent on unplanned interaction of trainees, their supervisors and random opportunities in their working environments" (Cannon, 2001, p. 116). The questionnaire data suggest that PD initiatives at the university had (a) increased confidence in staff to deal with staff and students, (b) increased the awareness of staff of the need for professional growth, and (c) increased the knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration and the improved professional status of the administrators. One respondent remarked, "*As a matter of fact, the feeling of our colleagues in other universities is that Moi University administrators are way ahead of them in training.*"

However, the interview data reflect that, overall, a majority of administrators perceived that the initiatives did not add much value to their work, despite the acquisition of skills. According to them, positive outcomes was hampered by (a) poor redeployment, (b) a lack of resources to apply their new skills; (c) a lack of flexibility on the part of senior management to allow them to ingest new ideas (structure), (d) an over-

concentration on one area of study, (e) difficulty in accounting for effectiveness because of the sporadic and ad hoc nature, (f) a poor selection process that had caused a great deal of dissatisfaction, and (g) a serious lack of evaluation of past initiatives despite the fact that donor-funded programs and university-sponsored seminars and workshops had been going on for a number of years. There are, therefore, no definitive data to assess the outcomes of programs and overall outcomes for the institution as well as for individual administrators. Georgenson (1982; as cited in Cannon, 2001) stressed that this phenomenon is not unique to developing countries. He estimated that of the millions of dollars spent on training in American institutions, no more than 10% transfers to work.

An important component for judging outcomes is an evaluation (Hall, 1986; Kaplna, Drath, & Kofodimos, 1985; McDade, 1987). However, it has proved difficult in centralized authorities, such as in Moi University, where the higher management positions are difficult to access and inhibit receiving feedback or helpful suggestions from lower levels. Thus, many of the frustrations experienced by the lower levels seldom filter back to the senior management and contribute to a lack of institutionalization of PD.

Cannon (2001) reported similar data in his study of Indonesian institutions. He pointed out that the widespread absence of a structured re-entry process or continuing support suggests that insufficient thought is being given to the tasks that trainees are to perform. He noted that many "trainees report that they continued where they had been before their departure, which is particularly frustrating for those who participate in long-term degree work" (p. 115). As in Indonesia, in this study there were ample data from the university, especially from the interview respondents, to indicate that there was an

"isolation of former trainees (administrators) in their institutional environment in the process of change" (p. 115).

In comparing subgroups, the data indicate that the PAOs, most of whom had attended formal training compared to other groups, perceived a number of initiatives to have been more effective than did the lower levels. According to the data, those who had attended professional development initiatives showed a substantial difference from those who had not in two areas; namely, stimulated learning among administrators and improved performance of staff.

Barriers to PD

This study revealed that the university was faced with formidable barriers in providing effective professional development initiatives. Both statistical and interview data showed a host of negative factors impacting on the university from both within and without. The statistical data indicated that the major barriers were (a) insufficient budgets, (b) lack of flexibility in the institution for administration to venture out on their own for development programs, (c) inadequate communication and information available on staff development opportunities, and (d) lack of support and lack of incentives for administrators to pursue professional development. These barriers were also addressed extensively in the staff development literature (Abagi, 1999; Ajay, 1996; Castetter, 1996; University of Alberta, 1997; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995).

The qualitative data generated a number of factors perceived to be barriers (Appendix G) that were thematically classified into economic, attitudinal, technical, administrative structure and decision making, lack of planning and policy, and administrator conceptualization of professional development. Caffarella and Zinn (1999),

on analyzing a framework of barriers and support for faculty professional development, noted the existence of similar barriers in a number of studies. The above barriers support the findings in the literature regarding staff development barriers in African universities (Abagi, 1997; Ajayi, 1996; Sifuna, 1997; UNESCO, 1998).

Of special significance is the impact of the lack of financial resources on the overall provisions of services and general performance of the universities. Koech (1999) reported on the education system in Kenya that the growth in university student enrolment and other challenges facing the university have not been matched provisions of appropriate resources in order to maintain high quality, relevance of university training, research, and scholarships (p. 175). UNESCO (1998) reported another dimension of funding as a barrier in Britain, where "an innovative attempt to run a certificate of professional development for non academic staff was being discontinued because not enough universities were willing to pay for the training" (p. 11).

Further, Koech (1999), in examining faculty and staff development issues in Kenyan universities, reported that the poor terms of services for university staff have affected the general morale and desire for self-development and research. The commission observed that the low morale and excessive engagement with alternative income-generating activities might have seriously affected the desire for staff to continue education and training. The reports, as well as the interview respondents, indicated that there was a general morale problem due to poor terms, which had necessitated staff members' engaging in several activities to meet their basic needs.

The economic reality had forced the government, through the Ministry of Education, to challenge the universities to generate their own funds to supplement

government grants (Koech, 1999). It was as a result of the funding shortfall, as well as pressure from the donor community, that the universities were compelled to adopt a cost-sharing strategy, in which students had to pay part of their tuition fees rather than receiving full scholarships from the government (Koech, 1999; World Bank, 1998). This, it was believed, would free up funds for programming and services at the university.

Lack of Recognition

The interview respondents discussed at length their feelings of being unrecognized for the work that they do. To most of them the lack of recognition had led to less interest in PD. This is precisely why the SDC and senior management would prefer to develop faculty, almost to the exclusion of administrators. Johnsrud and Rosser (1999) explored this theme and contended that the middle-level managers have long been seeking recognition for their contributions to university administration and that the lack of recognition had been costly in terms of career development and advancement.

General Sense of Frustration

The interview respondents also succinctly brought out the theme of frustration with regard to lack of training and their desire to participate. The lack of career development and advancement opportunities was seen as a persistent source of frustration to administrators, especially those at the lower levels. Similar sentiments were reported in the works of Moore and Tombly (1990), Johnsrud and Rosser (1999), and Fey and Carpenter (1996). Johnsrud (1996) noted that part of the frustration stemmed from the fact that few administrators enjoyed the opportunity that the faculty has—to remain in their positions while advancing through the ranks with increased salary and status.

Factors That Encourage PD Activities

This study identified from both interviews and questionnaire data a number of factors, which, if pursued and implemented, would encourage PD activities. Whereas meagre financial resources or insufficient budgets were perceived as impediments to staff development, they were also perceived as the reason why many have been able to pursue PD activities (Koech, 1999). Koech reported on the state of Kenyan education and recommended increased budgeting for staff development to enhance research and supporting administrative structures. The report advocated increased income-generating ventures, industry-private sector involvement, and interuniversity linkages to enhance the financial base of the Kenyan university. According to the participants, financial prudence and higher allocation to PD activities would encourage and enable more participation. Other major factors included changes in the reward/incentive structure (Aidoo-Taylor, 1986; Kashoki, 1994; UNESCO, 1998), inclusive policies, and the training office; encouraging individual initiative through the recognition of non-certificate training activities (Aidoo-Taylor, 1986; Castetter, 2004); and attitude change on the part of senior staff towards PD (University of Alberta, 1997).

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study and the above discussions, the following conclusions are deduced regarding PD at the University.

Demographic Characteristics

With regard to the findings on the demographics and PD characteristics, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The university was endowed with a well-educated administrative staff, which reflected the university's adherence to minimum recruitment requirements as stated in the *Terms of Service Documents*. However, the sources of administrators for the university provided challenges in terms of their administrative skills for a university setting. The majority at the point of entry usually lacked preparation to handle university management. Hence there was a high need for PD initiatives to reorient by providing them with the administrative skills required for university staff.
2. Despite the presence of PD activities and the apparent high need for PD by all the subgroups in the survey, the findings suggest that participation in, and the level of awareness of, the various aspects of PD were not the same across the subgroups. Consequently, the findings suggest that the PD initiatives were not meeting the needs of all the subgroups. It can be further concluded that because the majority of those who had participated were PAOs, there was a disparity in terms of information dissemination and decision making, resulting in selective access to PD.
3. Based on the demographic characteristics of the respondents such as position level, participation rate, gender, academic qualification, and work experience, the differences in perceptions with regard to objectives, policies, strategies, outcomes barriers, PD needs, and method of delivery were minimal. However, those who had participated in PD activities tended to agree much more on aspects such as monetary policies, positive outcomes, and objectives than did those who had not participated.

Forms of PD

With regards to forms of PD and administrator participation, I have arrived at the following conclusions:

1. The high dependency on donor funding and fluctuating monthly and annual grants from the government has resulted in limited, sporadic, ad hoc, and patchy PD efforts. The findings reveal that mainly long-term and short-term educational programs and seminars and workshops were donor or linkage sponsored. This tended to limit (a) participation to certain administrative levels, the frequency with which these opportunities were available for them, and the venue.
2. Although in the study I have established a close link between funding and PD efforts, I have also suggested that the university has not succeeded in linking the PD activities with institutional needs. Based on the data, it seems that most administrators tended to become involved in further education more because of the desire to meet individual personal needs than to improve the organization. Consequently, the administrators demonstrated a preference for academic rather than professional practical skill training. In terms of institutional needs, the latter may have been more relevant.

Rationales

The findings indicate a general agreement with regards to individual and institutional development as the key rationales for PD. However, they also reveal that, in practice, PD was skewed towards individual needs. Similarly, although "change" was perceived as a key rationale, there was little evidence from the study to suggest adequate

response to agents of change such as technology; nor were PD activities in themselves seen to institute change.

Senior Management Roles

The involvement of the senior management personnel or lack thereof was key to the success or failure and institutionalization of PD in the university. In this regard, the findings suggest that the perceived lackluster involvement of these senior people contributed to lack of policies, a training office, PD budgets, and ongoing programs. As political appointees who were academic in orientation, their allegiance was seen to be divided and they were unable to institutionalize PD activities for administrative staff.

Organizational Inputs

Based on the findings, the following conclusions can be made with regard to organizational inputs:

1. The findings indicate that the university's inputs into PD were minimal. As indicated by the respondents, the organizational structure was largely perceived to be unfavorable for the implementation of PD and especially to the lower cadre of administrative staff. The perceived lack of senior management support, resources, uncoordinated information and communication, and minimal financial incentive meant there was a gap in terms of inputs required to drive the PD process forward.
2. Although the Staff Development Committee was the existing framework for approving PD opportunities, it was perceived as unfavorable to administrators as it was composed of academic personnel whose allegiance was foremost to members of faculty staff and unsupportive of administrator initiatives.

PD Needs and Delivery Methods

The following conclusions are deduced from the findings:

1. In terms of skill areas, the findings reveal that all subgroups tended to see the importance and need for development in the same way. Consequently, most respondents perceived the four skill areas of human resources management, computer skills, time management, and decision making as key. The university should thus concentrate on providing programs in these key areas. The survey, however, reported that the administrators had trained in different areas of study, largely unrelated to the above. This suggests the existence of a gap between what is practiced on the one hand, and, what is perceived as important and needed for Professional development.
2. The absence of staff and institutional needs analysis has resulted in uncoordinated efforts, most of which have, from the perspective of most administrators, not added any value to the services provided. It has also resulted in duplication of training opportunities for staff, multiple chances for a few staff members and none for other, and training in areas not critical to university administration at the time. At the time of the study, as indicated in the *Zambian case*, there were no projections regarding the number of people to be trained, in what fields, at what level, and for what purpose.
3. In terms of delivery methods, although the majority of the administrators identified "in-country" and "overseas" training as their preferred locations and methods, most of the senior administrators preferred local seminars. This

disparity suggests the desirability for differentiation in terms of needs when planning for PD initiatives for the different subgroups in the university.

4. The findings also reveal the need for PD methods that are cost effective and that can be made available to a wide range of staff. At the time, the most common forms of PD were skewed towards seminars and overseas training, which are donor dependent and available to only a few. Methods employing in-house resources were recommended.

Outcomes

Based on the findings the following conclusions were reached:

1. Because of the lack of evaluation of all forms of PD, it proved difficult to gauge the outcomes for PD activities. This was compounded by the fact that the outcomes of PD were somewhat arbitrary and often depended on unplanned or random opportunities. However, those who attended PD activities perceived that they provided vital knowledge and skills for their jobs as well as increased confidence in their dealing with staff and students.
2. A myriad of resource-based, structural, and attitudinal barriers were shown to have hampered the achievement of positive outcomes.
3. In terms of barriers to PD, the findings reveal the presence of formidable barriers from both within and outside the university. The findings establish that the lack of financial resources, technological changes, attitudes, communication, incentives, and administrator conceptualization of PD constituted key barriers.

4. Internally related barriers were largely structural, whereas externally generated barriers were largely economic and political. The university relied on fluctuating capitation, and senior managers were political appointees; therefore, their allegiance was divided.
5. Barriers could be minimized with internally generated, planned, in-house programs and resources. But they must be appealing or they won't be effective.

Framework

The study revealed a great deal of relevance and usefulness of the models that provided the framework for this study. For instance, the results supported the fact that PD in Moi University is largely resource dependent and also an open system. The resource dependency model is reflected from the fact PD as financial, technical and socio-cultural undertaking derives all its resources from the external environment. Open system theory reflected from the fact that internal actions and decisions as reflected by various managerial practices, and organizational inputs and administrator characteristics responded to external influencers. Also the same time, the university responded and made strategic decisions based on factors posed by the external environment, such as its relationship with governments, donor agencies, and institutional links, for financial backing and policy generation, technology, societal demands for expansion, and demographics. However, despite the lack of needs assessment for both at the individual and organizational level, and the overall analysis and interpretations of outcomes versus the goals of the institution, the respondents acknowledge the need for them. As such the framework is still recommended as a system for understanding PD at the university.

The third model, the neo-institutional theory (Joongbloed, Maasen, & Neave, 1999; Scott, 1981), focuses on the cognitive, normative, and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to the university. Issues such as cultures, structures, and routines are important especially as they affect the decision-making process, power relations, and professional development initiatives.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Practice

Consistent with earlier research in this area, this study has supported the view that research in staff development must be context specific. As such recommendations must be seen in the context of Moi University. Also, looking at the models adapted for the study, their main assumptions are that both external and internal variables interact to create conditions for professional development activities to take place. The following recommendations for practice at the university as well as at other institutions in Kenya with similar structures are offered:

1. The study revealed a legitimate and urgent need for a greater and more coordinated approach to staff development at the university. Considering the high interest in, the lack of, and the apparent high need for PD activities, it is imperative that the university establish a comprehensive staff development program for administrators. Such a need has been well documented (Abagi, 1999; Bukhala, 1987; McDade, 1987; Shtogren, 1978; UNESCO, 1998; Zuber-Skerritt, 1995). There is a need for the institution to present policy plans, which must include a clear definition of staff and professional development and clear goals, objectives, and strategies for implementation.

2. The study also establishes a need for a policy document that would guide both the Staff Development Committee and the staff development office/training office in addressing all staff development issues. These would include the relationship between the roles that the various categories of staff are expected to fulfill and the expected current professional development needs related to those roles. The model proposed by Porter and Padley (1982; see Figure 5) would be a good beginning point in this regard.
3. Professional development is a collaborative effort involving all parties in its planning and implementation. It is therefore imperative that the senior management support administrative staff development efforts and encourage administrators to implement and exercise the skills learned.
4. For effective coordination and implementation of programs and policy, the institution should support the establishment of a strong central staff development office that would be accorded enough authority to manage staff development issues at the institutional level. Additional staff development efforts appropriate for that level would still need to be made at departmental level.
5. Urgent evaluation of previous PD initiatives should be carried out to establish the outcomes so far and to detect shortcomings. The staff development office to design or plan effective new PD initiatives should use the results.
6. The respondents advocated an urgent review of the incentive and reward system with regard to staff development to foster participation or encourage other forms of professional development. It is evident from the study that other forms of professional development such as job rotation, on-the-job-training, and mentoring

are not recognized or viewed as professional development. Other forms such as seminars were attended by most, yet received little recognition or any form of reward. It is imperative that forms of reward other than monetary, such as recognition for future promotion considerations, be instituted. It is important that organizational policies in areas such as promotion and forms of recognition be tied to participation in PD activities to institutionalize the process.

7. It is apparent that the defining factor for participation is the availability of funds. The bulk of the funds for both continuing education and seminars are externally generated. Institutional resources supplement these efforts. This situation calls upon the institution to rethink its focus in terms of study areas/fields, appropriate forms of professional development, and the method of program delivery that would be cost effective. Professional development initiatives that employ fiscally efficient options to benefit more staff ought to be encouraged.
8. The study revealed that the lack of access based on inappropriate venue was one of the major reasons for non-participation by a number of administrative staff. Most of the programs had been held off campus. Access for most staff (especially the lower-level staff) was therefore hampered. For this reason, together with the fact that there are scarce financial resources, in-house programs using either university staff or local professional groups and consultants are recommended.
9. The study revealed that the members of staff in the lower cadres have participated less or not at all compared to the senior members in administration. The implication is that the university ought to take steps to plan and encourage

activities for these cadres along their perceived needs, while taking into consideration their perceived methods of delivery.

10. The study revealed that in terms of skill areas, there was more agreement by all categories of staff on the importance of certain skills to their roles and the need for professional development. The implication is that the university should focus on those needs that were identified as important and requiring development. These include human resource management, computer, time management, and decision-making skills.
11. For program sustainability, it is important that the university engage in aggressive fund development through partnerships with industry, the private sector, and other funding agencies to help with budgetary constraints related to staff development. The office charged with staff development should do more in directing and providing opportunities in identifying internal and external partnerships to create programs for skills development.
12. The university required organizational re-examination in terms of communication strategies regarding staff development issues and prospects. It is important that the staff be kept abreast of information or new knowledge that may assist in their skill development or training opportunities. The respondents suggested strategies such as embracing the use of technology to disseminate information, posting in bulletin boards, and sending out periodic newsletters.
13. The findings also call for structural reorganization of the decision-making process to encourage a collaborative approach to staff development issues. The rigid bureaucratic top-down structure tended to hinder participation of the lower-level

administrators. The reorganization could also include the Staff Development Committee to make it more representative in membership and thereby reduce administrators' negative perceptions of a decision-making organ of the university.

14. The study found that the university was endowed with a pool of a well-trained manpower. Therefore, work-place strategies need to be put into place, such as ongoing arrangements for in-house staff development, which draw on the skills of senior staff and recently returned trained staff. This might also include emphasis on training groups rather than isolated individuals.
15. The university should endeavour to change its perceptions of informal and nonformal forms of professional development. The apparent lack of recognition of these forms tends to have limited the way that administrators conceptualize and pursue staff/professional development initiatives.

Recommendations for Theory

From the findings, I suggest that the respondents expectations for PD from the university were inadequately met by the system in which they worked. The findings and experiences of the respondents demonstrate how difficult it is to implement coherent programs in a rigid, top-down bureaucratic structure in which decision-making processes are influenced by economic scarcity, personality interests, political patronage (political appointees), and dynamic staff and student demographics. Consequently, there seemed to be an imbalance in terms of organizational influence tipped in favour of external influencing factors making it largely a resource dependency relationship. A number of key deciding factors such as political patronage, financial resources, donor agencies policies, and political policy pronouncement tended to overshadow internal

administrative processes such needs analysis, evaluations, and strategic planning. The revised framework (Figure 8) reflects and fulfils the perceived pertinent facets for effective PD at Moi University.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research in the area of professional development in Kenyan universities is desirable because of its importance and the fact that it is receiving increased focus from different stakeholders. Also, the lack of literature and a framework in this area in the Kenya context, and the African continent in general, was established. As such, further research based on these suggestions would fill the existing gaps:

1. Similar studies should be done in other Kenyan public universities, and the findings compared to enable these universities to reach generalized and comprehensive understandings of administrator development needs and practices.
2. The study should be replicated because of changing institutional circumstances and the creation of the training office, to explore the extent and the direction of any changes in Moi University's administrator development activities and needs.
3. An evaluative study could be done on the perceived effectiveness of overseas training of administrators with regard to achieving organizational change.
4. A study on the organizational culture and its impact on staff and professional development at the university could be conducted.
5. Faculty and student perceptions of administrators' staff development with regard to improved and effective services need to be explored.

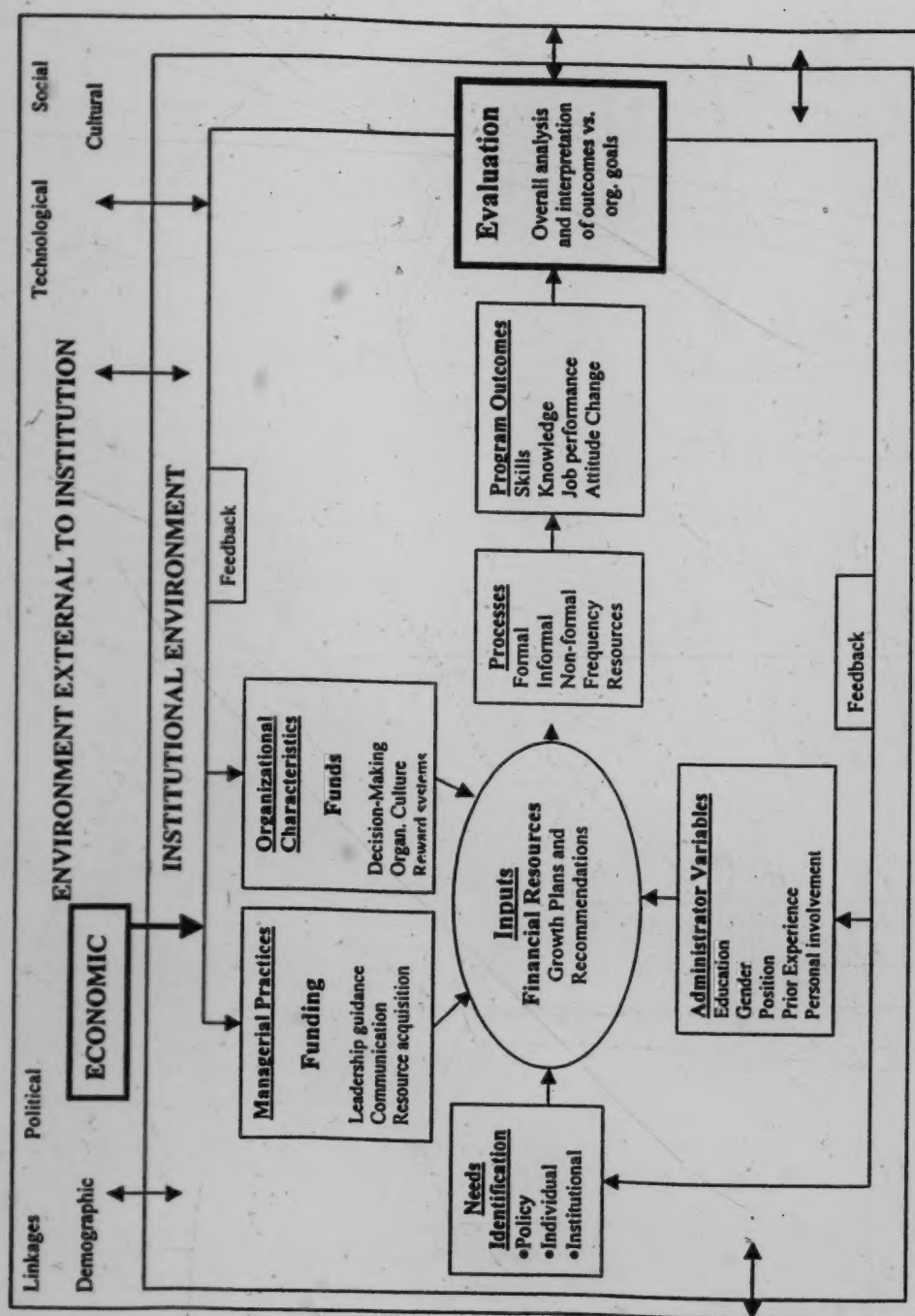


Figure 8: A revised framework for understanding Administrator development at Moi University with emphasis on economic dependency theory

6. A study to examine the underlying barriers to staff development with a view to encouraging participation and institutionalization of the process could be conducted.

Personal Reflections

My personal reflections are based on a combination of retrospective views, first as an employee of the university for over seven years and, as an administrator who participated in some professional initiatives; second, after conducting research in the same university involving participants, over half of whom are known to me; and third, in a socio-economic and political context familiar to me.

My desire (as well as that of many administrators with whom I talked) to work with the university was based largely on its perceived prestige and the perceived inherent opportunity for staff to develop professionally and academically compared to other organizations in Kenya. Similar aspirations of the participants were evident, except that the reality was far from their expectations. Looking back, therefore, I realize that our "survival act" and hunger for train was based on dashed expectations from a system that many did not fully understand. The lack of a policy framework within which the university could base its training endeavours provided loopholes for those who chose to use these loopholes for personal progress. It is precisely the purpose of this study to show that, by unearthing the perceptions and effects of what is going on in the area of staff development, the organization can begin to reform. Administrators' understanding of the context of the university as a system is key because it explains the why, what, when, who, and how of all of the initiatives undertaken.

This study has also provided a different lens through which to see the relationship among the researcher, the participants, and the setting. It has provided me with a perspective in terms of carrying out research involving colleagues and the organization in which one works. It has demonstrated to me how difficult it is to detach oneself from issues and emotions experienced by participants, especially with events with which one is familiar. There were instances when illustrations were given in which I was an actor/participant, and that made it difficult for me to detach myself from the issues. The dangers of getting drawn into certain opinions associated with my own biases are real. However, I worked hard to focus on the issues being discussed, and I let the participants generate their own perspectives.

Also, the assumption that entry would be easy based on the notion that I was an employee was not true. I had expected that the head of administration would clear my research, because I had written to him to support my research proposal for funding. It turned out that the research permit from the Ministry of Education required that the head of the institution grant me separate approval to carry out research at the institution. The institution had just appointed a new head, and because I was unknown to him, it took a long time before approval was granted; he had to acquaint himself with the details of my research proposal as well as gather opinions regarding research-involving staff. It is therefore prudent to ensure that before one proceeds to do research in a setting far from one's residence, all approval procedures have been finalized.

In my ethics declaration I vowed to report areas that I thought presented a weakness. On looking at the interview transcripts, I noted that there was less probing in

areas and on issues on which I held similar views. These seemingly "obvious" arguments may have limited deeper and new perspectives on those areas.

Conclusion

Although it is true that the university system in Kenya is desperately resource dependent, especially on the government and the donor community, the system should endeavour to streamline its staff development operations to achieve maximum effectiveness with the limited resources at its disposal. This study has made it clear that staff and professional development at the university cannot be addressed independently of the national and local politics, the national economy, the institutional power structure, and individual aspirations. As a matter of fact, the results of the study indicate that the university is a microcosm of the entire country in terms of performance. Recently, Koech (1999) reported:

The lack of effective coordination of training policies and the disproportionate production of skilled personnel across the entire economy has resulted in the mismanagement of human and other scarce resources; that is, duplication of effort; conflict of jurisdiction; under-utilization of available training facilities; wasteful and unnecessary competition, as well as the implementation of costly and irrelevant programs. In short, the existing coordinating agencies have failed to provide the much-needed harmonized coordination of training and human resources development activities that are necessary for the planned industrial take-off. (p. 141)

The university had close to 20 years of sporadic, nonevaluated staff development initiatives. It is very clear from worldwide trends that the skills required to develop administrative abilities and run dynamic institutions cannot be acquired through a series of ad hoc initiatives. There is therefore an urgent need to take stock to establish the effectiveness of current staff development initiatives so that the findings would serve as a basis for staff development efforts in the coming years. To this end, the university ought

to institute periodic needs assessment for both staff and the institution as a whole. This would go a long way to achieving what is still the overall objective of staff development—individual and institutional development.

Currently, there are real political, economic, technical, socio-cultural, and demographic changes affecting the university system. Therefore, the staff development initiatives should be reflective of and adaptive to the changes. To achieve this objective, proper, all-inclusive, proactive, and responsive system-based strategies and planning, centred on policy, need to be established and institutionalized. I hope that the new training office will be able to put the necessary policies and structures in place.

The university should also be credited for the distance it has traveled with so small a budget and for bringing aboard donor agencies and university partnerships and development groups to fund the various initiatives. The university should continue taking advantage of the increasing regional bodies, such as the Inter-University Council of East Africa, which currently funds workshops and seminars on university administration; funding from the Association of African University for research in university management; UNESCO; and the Association of Commonwealth Universities. The potential that such organizations possess for university growth and change is not to be underestimated.

In general, the university should come up with a vision to institutionalize PD for all members of staff — academic and administrative, and to professionalize its administrative staff and technologies. Despite all the perceived current barriers, the participants felt that the future of the university was bright.

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APPENDIX A

INVITATIONS TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

Appendix A

Invitations to Participate in the Research Study

Interview Participation

As indicated in my cover letter, I am requesting a limited number of administrators (6) to participate in an interview on the same topic. The researcher will select participants randomly from those who will have responded to the questionnaire and have expressed their willingness to participate.

The interviews will be conducted in accordance with the University of Alberta guidelines on ethics in human research. As such confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary participation, and option to opt out will be assured at all times. Details of your rights as a participant will be explained to you before an interview can be conducted.

If you are willing to support my study through your participation in an interview please provide the information below.

Name _____

Contact Address/Tel.

Please mail this consent separately from the questionnaire. A prepaid self-addressed envelope has been provided.

Thank you for your consideration

N. Lang'at

Questionnaire Participation

C/O PRO's Office
Moi University
Box 3900
Eldoret, Kenya

September 2000

Dear

Subject: Request to participate in a research study.

I am pleased to extend to you an invitation to complete and return the attached professional development needs questionnaire. I am a member of staff at this university and currently working on my doctoral degree in Education at the University of Alberta, Canada. I am presently carrying out a study that seeks to explore and describe the staff and professional development (PD) initiatives undertaken at this university for its non-academic administrators. It also seeks to explore the perceptions held by administrators towards staff development initiatives. It is hoped that the study would suggested ways of harmonizing PD with a view to developing a model for effective PD programs for administrators in Kenyan public universities.

Most of the questions can be answered by checking the spot on a five/six point scale that best represents your views and experiences. However there are a few that seek additional views and opinions. I anticipate that it would take approximately 50 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

I wish to let you know that your participation in this study is voluntary. You can choose not to participate by not responding to the questionnaire. All responses will remain completely anonymous and only grouped data will be reported. You do not need to write your name on the questionnaire.

Once you have completed your questionnaire, please return it in the provided envelope to the above address, or drop it off at the main campus registry. Your cooperation in responding by October 10th, 2000 will be greatly appreciated.

Part of my study will involve interviewing a limited number of administrators on the same topic. Participants who will have expressed willingness to participate will be randomly selected for the interview. If you are willing to be interviewed please indicate by completing the form attached and send it separately from the questionnaire using the second envelope provided. Anonymity and confidentiality is assured. I shall use pseudonym to protect your identity should you participate in the interview.

Should you have any questions about the survey, or the study itself, please do not hesitate to contact me by calling: Tel. No. _____

Thank you for taking time to participate in my study

N. Langat

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

Appendix B**Interviewee Consent Form**

I _____ consent to participate in the study conducted by Nicholas K. Langat as part of the requirements for his doctoral program at the University of Alberta, Canada. I also understand that the study is being conducted in accordance with the university's guidelines on ethics in human research with the approval of Faculty of Education Research Ethics Board.

The purpose of the study has been explained to me and I understand that:

- (a) permission has been granted by the institution to conduct the study
1. no deception is used in the research study
 2. the interview will be audio recorded and the tape kept only by the researcher
 3. my participation is voluntary
 4. I am guaranteed anonymity in reporting and confidentiality at all times
 5. interviews will be set for an agreed date, time and place of my choice
 6. I reserve the option to opt out of the study at any time
 7. I will be offered an opportunity to review transcripts before usage, and an option to retract or alter statements at any time during the interview and/or after the interview
 8. secondary use of data may include use of findings for presentations, articles for publications, and for further research, and
 9. that I will be free to ask further information and clarification.

Interviewee Signature

Researcher Signature

Date _____

Date _____

For further information concerning the completion of this form, please contact
Nicholas Langat at Tel. No. _____

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

**Staff/Professional Development Needs of Non-Teaching
Administrators In Kenyan Public Universities: A Survey**

This questionnaire is designed to gather information regarding the status of professional development of non-academic university administrators in Kenyan public universities.

As indicated in the cover letter, all responses will be kept confidential and no responses will be reported in a way that will identify an individual. Results from the Biographical data will be used to interpret the different types of variables under study.

C. No.

**Part 1: Characteristics and implementation of existing professional/Staff
Development initiatives.**

Section A: Biographical Information.

1. What is your present administrative position at this university? _____
2. What is your administrative division at this university? _____
3. What is your age category? (Please check (X) one)
☐ 30 or younger ☐ 31 - 40 ☐ 41 - 50 ☐ 51 or older
4. What is your gender ? Please check (X) one ☐ M ☐ F
5. What is your marital status ☐ Married ☐ Single ☐ Other
6. (a) What is your highest educational qualification? (Please Check only one answer)
☐ Ph. D.
☐ Masters degree
☐ Post Graduate Diploma in Education
☐ Undergraduate degree

☐ College/Technical institute certificate/Professional certificate (e.g. CPA)

☐ High school certificate

Other (specify) _____

(b) Are you currently pursuing any professional studies ☐ Yes ☐ No

(c) If yes specify _____

7. Have you worked in another institution/organization as an administrator?

☐ Yes

☐ No

8. If your answer to question 7 is "yes", what position did you hold in that institution/organization _____

9. For how long have you worked as an administrator? Please include current calendar year in your count

At this university _____ years

At another university _____ years

At another organization/sector _____ years

10. Have you participated in any formal staff development initiatives since you joined this university?

☐ Yes

☐ No

11.(a) What forms/types of staff/professional development initiatives have you been involved in? List them in the space provided below.

(b) How often have you participated in the activities listed in 11(a)?

12. Have you been granted study leave for purposes of staff/professional development since you joined this university? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, for how long?

☐ 1 month < 1 year

☐ 1 < 2 years

☐ 2 < 4 years

☐ 4 < 5 years

☐ 5 < 6 years

6. Promotions within the university are used to reward staff development efforts.

1 2 3 4 5 9

oooooooooooooooooooooooooooo

Part (ii) Strategies and activities for implementation

The next sets of statements describe the strategies and activities that may be used to conduct staff and professional development programs in universities. By drawing a circle, indicate the extent to which each in your opinion is applicable to this university.

Key 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree 9 = Don't know.

1. Staff development needs for administrators at this university are determined by the senior management of the university. 1 2 3 4 5 9
2. The "Training/Staff Development Office" provides various Ongoing forms of assistance for professional training of administrators. 1 2 3 4 5 9
3. The administrative departments at this university determine their own special staff/professional development needs. 1 2 3 4 5 9
4. The university utilizes the expertise of administrative staff in the university to design and implement internal staff development initiatives 1 2 3 4 5 9
5. The university organizes internal staff development initiatives for administrators 1 2 3 4 5 9
6. Administrative staff attend workshops/seminars organized within the university. 1 2 3 4 5 9

7. Administrative staff attend workshops/seminars organized outside the university.

1 2 3 4 5 9

oooooooooooooooooooooooooooo

Part 2: Rationale for professional development

In this part you are asked to rate what you perceive as the basis for your participation in staff/professional development initiatives. In other words, why did you participate?

Key :- 0 = Not responsible, 1 = Partially responsible,
2 = Responsible 3 = Fully responsible, 9 = Uncertain,

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Participated as a result of administrative staff performance evaluation | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 2. Participated as a result of the institution conducting an institutional needs assessment. | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 3. Participated as a result of the institution conducting an individual needs assessment. | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 4. University strategic planning. | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 5. Out of own initiative | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 6. Happened by chance | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| Other - Specify | |
| 7. | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 8. | 0 1 2 3 9 |
| 9. | 0 1 2 3 9 |

Part 3. Professional development Needs

Section (i) Preferred method of professional development delivery

Professional development needs at the university may be met through a variety of methods. Based on your staff/professional development needs, please rank in terms of the most preferred to least preferred method for staff development. Use "1" for the most preferred, a "2" for the second most preferred, etc.

- ☐ In-house courses/training
- ☐ Conferences/workshops/seminars
- ☐ Self study
- ☐ Having mentors assigned
- ☐ Visits
- ☐ Development work assignment
- ☐ In-country training at relevant institutions.
- ☐ Out-of-country training
- ☐ Work placement

Other - Please rank these alongside the above

- ☐ _____
- ☐ _____
- ☐ _____
- ☐ _____
- ☐ _____

@@

Section (ii) Professional development needs assessment

In this part, you are asked to relate the importance of the listed professional skills to your current role as an administrator at this university. You are also asked to relate each skills area to your current need for professional development in each of the skills area

For each of the following skill areas identified below, please circle a number which best indicates: 1). how important the skills are to your current role (0 = not important at all; 5 = extremely important, and, 2). what best describes your need for professional development in the area. (0 = no need for professional development; 5 = high need for professional development.

SKILLS	IMPORTANCE TO YOUR CURRENT ROLE					YOUR CURRENT NEED FOR PD IN THIS AREA						
	Not important					Extremely important						
Project management	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Decision making	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Financial skills	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Marketing	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Human resource management	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Leadership programs	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Computer skills	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Strategic planning	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Conflict management	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Public relations	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Labor relations	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Time management	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Team building	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Counseling	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Writing skills	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
Other - Specify other skills area you feel should be addressed. Please list and rate in the space provided.												
_____	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
_____	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
_____	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5

Part 4 Perceptions of professional development programs

In the following six sections (A-F), you are asked to assess the state and aspects of staff / professional development initiatives at this university.

Section A : Objectives of the program

For each of the statements below, circle one to correspond to the extent to which you agree with the following statements about staff development programs of the university. Use the six point scale provided below.

Key:- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree 9 = Don't know.

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. The university's definition of staff/professional development is clear to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 2. The aims of staff/professional development of this university are clear to me | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 3. The activities that constitute staff/professional development are clear to me | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 4. The role of the university in the implementation of staff/professional development are clear to me | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 5. The expectations and involvement of the individual staff members in the staff professional development efforts at this university are clear to me | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 6. The objectives of the staff/professional development programs of this university keep changing to meet the changing requirements of the university | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |

7. The staff development initiatives at this university
are to address the requirement of the institution 1 2 3 4 5 9
8. The staff development initiatives at this university are to
address the needs of the individual 1 2 3 4 5 9

@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@@

Section B: Presence of input variables

For each item circle the number that corresponds to the extent to which you agree with the statements about staff/professional development initiatives at this university.

Key:- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree; 9 = Don't know

1. Information and emerging issues on staff/professional
development are communicated to administrative staff. 1 2 3 4 5 9
2. Resources are available to staff for practicing the new ideas
and skills they have learned from staff/professional development 1 2 3 4 5 9
3. The decision making structure of the university promotes
implementation of the staff/professional development 1 2 3 4 5 9
4. The university provides incentives/rewards for academic
work undertaken relevant to one's administrative role. 1 2 3 4 5 9
5. The university provides rewards for work experience in other
sectors 1 2 3 4 5 9

Section C: Administrator/management input in staff development activities

The statements below describe some approaches that are used to carry out the objectives of staff/professional development. Circle around the number that corresponds to the extent to which you agree with the following statements about staff development initiatives at this university?

Key :- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = somewhat agree
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree 9 = Don't know

1. Individual staff members determine and pursue their own staff/professional development needs 1 2 3 4 5 9
2. A consultative approach is used by the staff development office to determine the needs and objectives of staff/professional development programs 1 2 3 4 5 9
3. Inputs by groups and individuals towards staff development efforts are encouraged by the senior management 1 2 3 4 5 9
4. The management assists staff members arrange for staff development/development initiatives 1 2 3 4 5 9
5. The senior management encourage staff training of any kind 1 2 3 4 5 9
6. The senior management assist efforts of individual administrators to pursue further professional development activities. 1 2 3 4 5 9

Section D: Outcomes/Effectiveness

In this section possible outcome of staff development efforts are listed. Circle the appropriate number to indicate the extend to which you believe the staff development at this university has influenced these outcomes.

**Key:- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = somewhat agree
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree 9 = Don't know**

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Has stimulated learning among the administrators | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 2. Has increased knowledge of concepts and skills related to administration | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 3. Has increased confidence in staff in dealing with staff/students | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 4. Has improved administrative performance of staff | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 5. Has increased awareness of staff on the need for professional growth and continuing one's education | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 6. Has increased staff awareness of the socio-economic conditions that affect the university | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 7. Has provided staff with greater understanding of the university | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 8. Has enhanced team-work among administrative staff in pursuing university goals. | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 9. Has increased job satisfaction among the administrators | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 10. Has increased interaction among staff in general | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |

Section F: Factors likely to impede staff development

Factors below are likely to impede the provision and implementation of the staff/professional development programs at this university. Circle the number that best indicates the degree to which it is a factor impeding staff development/professional development initiatives at this university.

Key:- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Undecided
4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree 9 = Don't know.

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Inadequate communication/information on available staff/professional development opportunities in the University. | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 2. The initiatives lack relevancy to the needs of the individual staff members | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 3. Lack of flexibility in the institution for administrators to venture on their own for development programs | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 4. General staff indifference to the introduction of new ideas | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 5. Lack of time to participate in any form of training | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 6. Too much emphasis is placed on organizational requirements | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 7. Insufficient budget for staff development | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 8. Lack of human resources | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |
| 9. Lack of organizational support | 1 2 3 4 5 9 |

C). Please provide suggestions for change (improvement) in staff/professional development activities for administrators at this university.

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire. I really appreciate your assistance.

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Appendix D

Interview Guide

1. Begin by telling me
 - Your name
 - How long you've worked with Moi University.
 - The name of your section and what you do
 - Had you worked elsewhere before Moi University?
2. Talk to me about the professional/staff development activities at this university.
 - Which ones have you participated in?
 - How often
 - What procedures did you follow?
- 3 What would you say are the reasons for your participation?
- 4 How was your participation facilitated?
 - Funding
 - Needs analysis?
 - Senior staff
 - Staff development office/committee?
- 5 Explain to me what you feel are the barriers to PD.
 - How might these be alleviated
6. What areas in terms of skills do you feel are
 - Key
 - Lacking or
 - Needs development
- 7 What is your overall assessment of the PD activities?

APPENDIX E

PD RECORDS FROM THE PERSONNEL OFFICE SUMMARY OF

PD ACTIVITIES

UNDER THE WORLD BANK AND MHO (1994-1999)

Appendix E

Records From the Personnel Office And

Summary of PD Activities Under the World Bank and MHO (1994-1999)

Category	Types of programs attended					Total completed
	PhD	Master's	Diploma	Certificate	Non-certificate	
Administration	-	22	5	37	1	65
Faculty	4	16	-	2	1	28
Total	4	38	5	39	2	93

Note:

- The table provide information only for formal PD undertaken by both administrative staff and faculty both locally and overseas. The faculty is for comparison.
- A few of the administrative staff came from Finance, Housing and Hostels departments and administrative secretaries.
- Other programs in which administrators undertook with other agencies (such as CIDA, BC, Commonwealth Scholarships, and GK-DPM) are not included in this chart.

APPENDIX F

**FACTORS THAT SURVEY RESPONDENTS IDENTIFIED AS
STRENGTHS OF THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAM**

Appendix F

Factors That Survey Respondents Identified as Strengths of the Staff Development Program

1. The recent activation of the training office.
2. Introduction of evening programs enabling staff to attend evening courses at the university.
3. Reduction of fee to staff attending evening classes.
4. Administrative staff that obtain higher professional training or qualification is given salary increments.
5. Some administrative have been granted study leave to pursue professional courses.
6. Staff have been sponsored by the university to pursue courses.
7. Individual initiatives are encouraged
8. For the few members who have had an opportunity to participate in staff development programs, emphasis has been placed on HRM and Institutional management – which is very relevant to the needs of the university.
9. Self motivation
10. Availability of sponsoring/finances from donors
11. Granting of study leave by the university
12. Self-sponsored training is encouraged and the university provides time.
13. The university coordinates and recommends those applying for scholarships
14. Available resource persons
15. Youthful staff ready for training
16. Insistence on pursuit of courses relevant to ones area of specialization.

17. That a new policy on staff training/development is being worked

18. It has provided some staff with the motivation and new skills to do their work better than before.

APPENDIX G

**SUMMARY OF PD BARRIERS FROM OPEN-ENDED SECTION OF
QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS**

Appendix G

Summary of PD Barriers From Open-Ended Section of Questionnaire

The summary is organized according to coded themes.

Economic

1. Lack of sufficient funding
2. Limited sources to solicit funding from
3. Available financial resources not spread out well
4. Largely donor dependent
5. Financial incentives not adequate or non-existent
6. Little annual allocation of funds over the years
7. No more salary for those on study leave

Attitudinal

1. Fear of attrition
2. SDC have little support for administrator development
3. PD not a priority for administration
4. Priority given to faculty
5. Academic administrators do not make every effort for non-teaching administrators to train
6. Senior administration does not feel obligated to provide PD but rather individuals should.
7. Apathy - lack of recognition
8. Discrimination against junior administration
9. Favouritism, tribalism
10. Some senior Academic administrators do not perceive qualification beyond masters as being relevant for administration
11. Resistance to change in training needs and trends.

Technical

1. No policy to guide PD
2. Lack of technical facilities
3. Lack of expertise for available computers and technological resources
4. No criteria for skill development
5. Lack of time
6. Age factor
7. Retrenchment in effect—cutting back on staff

Structure and decision-making

1. No promotion structure for PD and career development
2. Two-tier training offices – antagonistic
3. Competition for sponsors between administrators and academic staff
4. All senior managers are academic administrators and political appointees-no priority for admin. Development.
5. Pd processes not transparent – Based on “who knows who”
6. Little available information on PD opportunities is channelled to staff
7. Unclear roles for administrators concerning PD
8. Lower levels administrators do not benefit from various opportunities compared to senior staff
9. Lack of flexibility on PD processes.

Planning

1. Poor deployment of administrative staff
2. Poor utilization of new acquired skills
3. No needs assessment
4. Multiple opportunities for a few administrators
5. Training needs unknown
6. No evaluation
7. Lack of prioritization of needs for development
8. Many are hired from outside rather than trained and promoted from within
9. No on-going or planned for program
10. No trainers

Conceptual

1. Competition for further education overseas
2. No desire for in-house programs
3. No recognition for non-formal and un-certifiable programs
4. Rotation should be seen as training and not punishment
5. No inductions to enable staff understand the organization and enable them perceive it as PD.

Impediments to Professional Development Identified by Interview Participants

	Barriers to PD	J	I	D	G	C	B	S	Freq
1	Lack of funds	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	7
2	Lack of technical resources	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	7
3	Emphasis given to faculty	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	7
4	No training policy for administrators	•	•	•	•	•		•	6
5	SDC not representative	•	•	•	•	•	•		6
6	PD not a priority	•	•	•	•	•			5
7	Lack of planned PD initiatives	•	•	•	•	•			5
8	No appreciation for admin development	•	•	•	•	•			5
9	Minimal senior management support	•		•	•	•	•		5
10	No needs assessment	•	•	•	•	•			5
11	Own initiatives result in irrelevant foci	•	•	•	•		•		5
12	Lack of evaluation after PD activities	•		•			•	•	4
13	No opportunity to apply learnt skills	•		•	•	•			4
14	Negative attitudes towards admin. devt.		•	•	•	•			4
15	Complacency to change		•	•			•	•	4
16	Selectivity due to funding			•	•			•	3
17	Lack of decision making - everything handed down	•		•	•				3
18	Misplacement after training		•	•	•				3
19	No scheme of service	•		•			•		3
20	Lack of correlation of one's expertise and roles performed		•	•				•	3
21	Lack of harmonization of individual and university development needs		•	•		•			3
22	Spontaneity of training - not planned	•		•		•			3
23	No central coordinating office				•	•			2
24	No proper reward and recognition system		•		•				2
25	No use of internal resources	•						•	2
26	No incentive - withdrawal of paid leave			•	•				2
27	Lack of technical skills to effect change					•	•		2
28	Fear of attrition		•					•	2
29	Overspecialization in one field HRM			•				•	2